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ABSTRACT

The ways in which teachers and administrators manage their time is the focus of this four-part study, which includes: (1) an introductory overview of a 1984 study of K-12 teachers' use of time; (2) a study of special education teachers' use of time in two counties in Georgia; (3) a study of successful elementary principals' time budgeting; and (4) a study of Tennessee supervisors' daily time management. The latter three studies are based on an observation system developed for the first phase of the research. Although the task categories used in each study changed, the methodology based on field observation and application of the research instrument did not. Each study includes one or more of the following: an extensive bibliography; a summary of the findings; and a copy of the observation instrument. (LMI)

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TIME USE BY TEACHERS AND SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

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By

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TIME USE BY TEACHERS AND SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

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Overview

Time is a crucial ingredient in most endeavors. The final shot in the basketball game must "beat the clock." The income tax return must be postmarked before midnight of April 15. The news interview must be cut short since it is time for a commercial (which costs the sponsor a set amount of money per minute). Classroom teachers and school administrators dream of having enough time to complete the tasks for which they are held accountable. On every level of instruction and administration, school personnel are in search of that which is precious to academic learning and successful operation of the schools--time.

This paper is presented in four parts: (1) an introductory overview which includes the background of a series of studies begun in 1984 of regular K-12 classroom teachers' use of time and a summary of previously reported initial results which were presented at annual conferences of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development in 1986 and 1987, (2) a study of special education teachers' use of time in two counties in Georgia, (3) a study of how selected elementary principals who had achieved the highest ratings possible in the Tennessee evaluation system spent their time in typical school days, and (4) a study of how 15 selected superintendents of schools in

Tennessee spent their time during typical days. The latter three studies were based on an observation system developed for the first phase of this research. Although the categories of tasks changed, the observational method remained the same.

Rationale

Studies showing how schools use time have in the past provided useful information regarding ways in which schools may improve (Karwait, 1984). Such studies often have revealed that only about half of the school day is used for actual instruction. Activities of a non-instructional nature (interruptions, transitions from one area of the school to another, etc.) account for a large portion of valuable instructional time that is lost in the average day. Differences in instructional techniques, as well as the amount of time allocated to a particular subject, also account for varying amounts of time use in the classroom.

It has been estimated that students lose an average of 16% of instructional time before they get to class, and another 16% is lost inside the classroom. Last minute teacher preparation/ organization, administrative procedures, student misconduct, and other interruptions contribute to time lost in an instructional day. Increasing teacher time-on-task may reduce time loss in instruction from 55% to 33% (Justiz, 1984).

A positive correlation seems to exist between the amount of time allocated to instruction and student achievement (Martin,

1980; Saily, 1981; Sirotnik, 1981; Sanford and Evertson, 1982). Time lost because of interruptions and other distractions, both from inside and outside the classroom, may affect and even hamper student achievement (Harrison, 1983).

Studies have also been undertaken of administrator time use and the fact that time used to complete some tasks often deter or even prevent the completion of other, often more important responsibilities (Trump, 1986; Katz, 1988). Effective principals have been studied and their leadership responsibilities scrutinized in terms of how they use their time (Lyman, 1988). One of the areas on administrator preservice and inservice training advanced in recent years has been "time management" (Roitman, 1986). Since administrative leadership is crucial to effective use of teachers' time, it is important to study this variable in the context of the instructional act and the support of sound educational practice. Some of the previous studies of administrator use of time based on the work of Mintzberg has come under criticism because of design and other limitations (Pitner and Russell, 1985-86, Parts I and II).

Classroom Teacher Studies: 1984-86

Introduction

Many studies of time use in schools have concentrated on how the students use their time (eg. Carroll, 1963; Seifert and Beck, 1984; Nerenz and Knop, 1982; Steere and Wiley, 1985; McIntyre, Copenhaver, Byrd and Norris, 1983). Obviously, there is a

connection between student and teacher time use, but there are differences also. A teacher may be on task and the student off task at the same time and visa versa. Of the studies completed which focused on the teacher's behavior, most have been completed using the questionable method of teacher self-reporting of time allocations as kept in logs of daily activities. Without more scientifically gathered data on personnel time use, improvement in staff performance is unlikely, or at least it will be hit or miss.

In the Fall of 1984, a study was undertaken at the request of officials of a small town special school district in rural Tennessee of how their teachers used their time during the official school day. Based on a review of the literature and including the ingredients of the Tennessee Instructional Model (a recently imposed structured framework for teacher approach to instruction and the basis for teacher evaluation), an observation instrument was developed and field tested.

Methodology

The instrument developed consisted of ten categories of behavior, each of which were checked at 15-second intervals by an observer throughout the official school day. The categories were: Set, Instruction, Closure, Management, Transition, Interruptions, Socialization, Uninvolved but Participating, Uninvolved but Supervising, and Uninvolved. (See Appendix of this section for a list of definitions and a copy of the instrument.) Set, Instruction, and Closure were considered On-task

Level I (directly related to the teaching act); Management, Transition, Uninvolved but Participating (a category later dropped because it was little used), and Uninvolved but Supervising were On-task Level II (required work not directly related to the teaching act); and Interruptions, Socialization, and Uninvolved were considered Off-task behaviors. After the initial study, the researchers determined adjustments to the instrument were needed. In addition to dropping the category mentioned above, Management was split into two categories (Management Clerical--tasks such as collecting lunch money, taking roll, or recording grades; and Management Instruction--lesson planning, evaluating papers or tests, and conferences with parents). Further definition of the Instruction category was also undertaken, dividing it into Teaching, Monitoring and Adjusting, and Supervised Practice.

In each of the studies undertaken in regular classrooms (five school systems and 12 individual schools in all) random samples of teachers were selected. Of those selected, only three teachers (of a total of 85 selected and 82 observed) declined to participate.

During field testing, all observers used in the studies in the five school systems were trained until they could demonstrate interrater reliabilities of at least .90.

Observations were undertaken for the duration of the official school day, including all breaks, lunch, and planning periods, as well as classroom instruction. While it may be

argued that teachers who knew they were being observed would stay on task more than usual, it was not the assessment of the observers that this was the case. After the first few minutes, teachers seemed to forget the visitor was there. In fact, the social nature of most teachers may have led to more socialization (with the observer) than normal. Every attempt was made to by the observers to be as unobtrusive as possible.

Data from the observations were tallied and percents of time for each category and for the three levels of task orientation were calculated.

Summary of Findings

While there were differences among teachers in a given school and among the various schools studied, there were some general consistencies found. Individual schools ranged from 75% to 85% in total On-task behavior. In fact, only one school fell outside this range at 70%. Direct instructional activity averaged between 26% and 35% except for one case where it was a low 21%. Set and Closure activities were universally small in number, in no case reaching 2.5% for Set and only in two cases averaging as high as 1% for Closure. In the case of some individual teachers no Set or Closure was observed for an entire day. Thus, On-task Level I (Set, Instruction, Closure, and Management-Instruction) usually averaged about 45% of the school day, with a range among schools of from 41.2% to 53.9%. On-task Level II (Management-Clerical, Uninvolved but Supervising, and Transition) varied on a school average from 24% to 44%. It was

notable that where On-task Level I was relatively higher On-task Level II was relatively lower and visa versa, so that total On-task behaviors were relatively close 80% regardless of the school.

When you take into account that the observation period included lunch and any breaks the teachers had during the day, it is notable that the time Off-task averaged only a little over 20%. Interruptions (over which teachers have little if any control) accounted for an average of 4%; Socialization averaged 10.5%; and totally Uninvolved (daydreaming, personal reading, etc.) accounted for the rest of the Off-task behaviors (6+%).

The most complete report of a study of teacher time use using these procedures for regular classroom teachers was completed in 1986 (Richards, 1986). The other complete results were reported to the individual school systems and in the 1986 (Chance, Richards and Roney, 1986) and 1987 (Roney, Chance and Richards, 1987) papers presented at the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

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APPENDIX

THE RONEY "TEACHER TIME-ON-TASK OBSERVATION" CATEGORIES

1. Set - SET: those activities which the teacher undertakes to involve all students and to make the up-coming lesson relate to previous learning, daily experience in previous instruction, setting the goals, direction and limits of the lesson to come.

2. Instruction - INS: the actual teaching, including explaining, questioning, directing, and responding to students; also includes monitoring and adjusting student learning and supervised practice under the direction of the teacher.

3. Closure - CLO: the summation of the lesson, including recapitulation and summary, relationship to life activities and other previous learning, and practical applications.

4. Management - MGT: the required non-instructional duties of teachers, such as calling roll, collecting lunch money, directing students to specific learning groups, testing, taking up and distributing papers, planning lessons, preparing materials, grading papers, etc.

5. Transition - TRA: the time spent in transit between classes or learning groups.

6. Interruptions - INT: breaks in the other business of the school caused by someone other than the teacher. These could be form outside the classroom such as when announcements are made on the PA system, students enter the class late, parents or other school personnel interrupt the teacher, or there is a fire drill. They may come from within the classroom when the teacher is interrupted by inappropriate student behavior.

7. Socialization - SOC: visiting with other adults or students on topics other than school matters. This may occur in the classroom or at a break, lunch, or transitional times.

8. Uninvolved but Participating - UNP: this includes teacher supervision and participation with students in an activity where no instruction is involved (eg. teacher walking laps with students on the playground).

9. Uninvolved but Supervising - UNS: teacher is responsible for student behavior and welfare but is not teaching or managing students.

10. Uninvolved - UNI: total disengagement; this category was used only when the teacher was doing nothing that could be classified any other way.

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Special Education Teacher Study: 1988

Introduction.

In recent years much attention has been given to ways of increasing the level of achievement of students. Study after study has pointed to the fact that if America is to retain its position as a world leader, its schools must produce individuals who can compete intellectually with the best of other nations. America's school leaders have been told that they must critically evaluate and streamline their programs so that every student has the maximum opportunity to achieve his or her potential. This cry is made not only in behalf of students in regular or accelerated programs, but also to those in special programs, such as those operated according to the guidelines of Public Law 94-142, or The Education for All Handicapped Children Act (Handicapped Students and Special Education, 1985).

It was not until the 1980's that an appreciable amount of literature could be found relating the results of the time-on-task studies to the area of special education. During this period researchers concerned with improving the quality of academic services delivered to handicapped students began to look seriously at the special education classroom and examine teaching practices in light of the effective schools research. An interesting discovery to the researchers was that many of the findings from the previous decade's studies had particular relevance to

teachers of the handicapped. A common thread running through many of the studies was that the major variable which seemed to discriminate between more and less effective teachers was student opportunity to learn, which includes a measure of the amount of time students spend engaged academically (Knowles, Aufderheide, and McKenzie, 1982). Thus, the concept of academic learning time had made its way into the special education classroom.

In a study reported in 1983 on teacher and student behaviors in regular and special education settings, Carol Crealock found that teachers spent 48% of total classroom time in cognitive activities and 5% in management activities while students spent 40% of total classroom time in on-task activities and 7% in off-task activities. This Canadian study in which 31 identified special education students, 16 average students, 20 special education teachers, and 15 regular education teachers participated brought to light other interesting results. Exceptional students were found to interact more with teachers in both settings than were average students, while average students were more likely to interact with peers. Teachers in regular classes spent more time in direct instruction, while special education teachers spent more time responding to individual students (Crealock, 1983). The author suggested that the interactions between regular education teachers and special education students were of the type that foster academic competence. A major conclusion was that individual cognitive interactions between

teacher and student are most evident in the special education setting; whereas, peer interactions, both of an academic and of a social nature, are more likely to occur in the regular education classroom (Crealock, 1983).

Since disruptive and distractible students pose such a problem for many teachers, practical behavior management techniques become essential tools. In 1986 Michael Rosenberg reported on a study which was conducted to assess the relative strength of daily rule review and rehearsal on student behavior. The subjects were five boys ranging in age from 7.2 to 9.3 years who attended a special education resource room for the remediation of deficiencies in reading and mathematics. Each of these boys had been described by his regular classroom teacher as being highly distractible, impulsive, and verbally and physically aggressive (Rosenberg, 1986). The boys were observed for two thirty-minute periods over two days. Data were collected on measures of time-on-task and talking out without permission. Compared to using a token economy alone, the token economy with the daily review of classroom rules increased overall time-on-task by 12% and decreased disruptive talking out by 50%. The study demonstrated that a brief review of classroom rules or token economy contingencies can increase the effectiveness of a well-planned classroom management system. It also demonstrated that daily lessons preceded by a review of rules tended to create an academic focus, as opposed to beginning lessons with no review

of classroom rules. These findings should be a welcome note to special education teachers who must frequently initiate more formal and highly structured classroom management practices (Rosenberg, 1986).

With severely/multiply handicapped students the issue of instructional time is directly related to environmental considerations, since the very nature of their handicapping conditions usually requires that "caretaking" or non-instructional activities consume a significant part of each school day (Snart and Hillyard. 1985). The literature is fairly clear in establishing the idea that more instruction results in more learning, at least for higher functioning individuals. It has also been suggested that instructional time is also the most critical variable affecting the performance gains of severely and profoundly handicapped students. Furthermore, the student-to-staff ratio directly affects the amount of instructional time available. A study was conducted to examine the instructional time available with varying numbers of staff members; the study also sought to establish a student/staff ratio that seemed to maximize allocated instructional time for students. The population observed included students who were severely/profoundly mentally handicapped, severely behavior disordered, neurologically impaired, and physically handicapped. Direct instruction included instructional programming, lunch time programming, and mobility programming, with all other categories falling into non-instructional

time. Results indicated that the point at which the most obvious increase in instructional programming time occurs with less time being spent in non-instructional activities, is that involving six students and three staff, or a 2:1 student/staff ratio (Snart and Hillyard, 1985). Hence, instructional time increases greatly with decreases in student/staff ratios.

Learning disabled students constitute by far the largest group of handicapped students in the public schools. These students have disorders in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or using language, spoken or written, which may manifest itself in an impaired ability to listen, think, speak, write, spell, or do mathematics calculations (Georgia Department of Education, 1984). Thurlow, Ysseldyke, Graden, and Algozzine (1984) explored the issue of learning disabled students' opportunities to learn. The study examined 26 learning disabled students receiving different levels of special educational services, from the minimum (i.e., consultative services) to the most restrictive (full-time special class placement). In this study the term student active academic responding time was used and is synonymous with the more commonly used student engaged time. The authors reported that even though instructional approaches varied, no differences were found in students' opportunities to learn through active academic responding even in different service levels (Thurlow, Ysseldyke, Graden, and Algozzine, 1984). The study suggests that students in more

restrictive environments may not receive significantly greater opportunities for active academic responding than do students in less restrictive environments. It seems reasonable that teachers who incorporate the findings from the research on effective teaching practices into their instructional planning are likely to improve instructional programs for their learning disabled students, no matter what level or degree of services they receive (Zigmond, Sansone, Miller, Donahoe, and Kohnke, 1986).

In summary, the research on effective teaching before the 1980's was scant relative to addressing the academic learning time of the handicapped student. Techniques for measuring the amount of student time-on-task and even teacher time-on-task continued to be developed and have become gradually more refined. As the number of studies which showed a positive relationship between the amount of time a student was engaged in a task with a high degree of success and an increased achievement level grew in number, researchers began to focus on the handicapped student and apply the findings from previous studies to this population. Through a variety of methodologies and observation instruments, it has been shown through the decade of the eighties that the findings are indeed applicable to handicapped students.

Methodology.

The following research questions were formulated to direct this study:

1. What is the percentage of time devoted by special education teachers to direct instruction and other on-task behaviors?
2. What is the percentage of time that is lost by special education teachers to the off-task behaviors of interruptions, socialization, and uninvolvement?
3. How will the time-on-task data of special education teachers compare with similar data gathered in other school systems for regular education teachers?

Additionally, the following hypotheses were formulated:

1. There is no significant difference between the Time-on-Task (Levels I and II) and the time off-task for elementary and secondary special education teachers.
2. There is no significant difference between the Time-on-Task (Levels I and II) and the time off-task of teachers with assigned paraprofessionals and those with no paraprofessional assistance in their classrooms.
3. More on-task behavior will be observed in the mornings than in the afternoons.

This study was conducted in two northwest Georgia school systems. The populations of both districts range from dense to sparse, with the majority of students coming from homes in the

suburban and rural areas. The socioeconomic level of the families is predominately middle class; however both systems have a small portion of lower-class residents with school-aged children.

In the fall of 1987 the researcher was granted permission from superintendents of both school systems to conduct this special education teacher time-on-task study. From a total of 90 special education teachers, a sample of 30 was randomly drawn, with two alternates from each school being also drawn to insure that an observation would take place on the assigned day. In drawing the sample, no distinction was made between teachers from the two school systems, nor was any attempt made to stratify the groups as to elementary and secondary or resource and self-contained. Likewise, teachers with paraprofessional assistance in their classrooms were not drawn separately. However, each of the aforementioned categories was recorded on the observation sheet which the researcher used for data gathering.

An observation form originally developed by Dr. Robert K. Roney at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, formed the basis for the instrument which was used in this study. A revision of Roney's original model was used by Suzanne T. Richards in her 1985 study of teacher time-on-task (Richards, 1985). Richards' form, however, has been modified to accommodate the division of management into instructional and clerical components. This observation form is included as an appendix to this paper.

The observation sheet included the following time-on-task categories which were designated as On-Task Level I: set (the teacher's attempt to involve all students in the lesson), instruction (the actual teaching of the lesson), monitoring and adjusting (altering methods and strategies to clarify the lesson and meet individual instructional needs), supervising practice (the teacher's observation of independent activities after teaching has occurred), closure (recapitulating or summarizing the lesson), and instructional management (activities performed by the teacher which are related to instruction and aid in the smooth operation of the classroom). The remaining on-task categories of clerical management (non-instructional activities performed by the teacher which help the classroom run smoothly), transition (the teacher's assisting in moving a group from one place to another), and uninvolved but supervising (the teacher's having responsibility for the students but not teaching) constituted On-Task Level II. Finally, the off-task categories included socialization (a teacher's visiting with or relating to other adults and/or students on non-instructional topics), interruptions (breaks in the school day caused by someone other than the teacher), and uninvolvement (total disengagement by the teacher). The design of the instrument allowed the observer to check one or more of the aforementioned behavioral categories at 15-second intervals throughout the observation period.

Two four-hour observations per week were conducted. In an

effort to gain a true picture of the entire spectrum of teacher behaviors that occur throughout the school day, fifteen observations were conducted in the morning and the remaining fifteen took place in the afternoon. Teachers were assigned morning and afternoon observation times at random. The time span for morning observations was from either 7:30 a.m. until 11:30 a.m. or from 8:00 a.m. until 12:00 p.m., depending upon the opening time of the individual school. Afternoon observations were from either 11:30 a.m. until 3:30 p.m. or from 12:00 p.m. until 4:00 p.nm., the time span again depending upon the particular schedule of the individual school.

Field-testing of the modified observation form took place in mid-January 1988. The actual observations began in late January and concluded in early May 1988. The 30 half-day observations resulted in a total of 120 hours, 7200 minutes, or 28,880 15-second intervals of observation time. Although teachers were notified by their principals of their being chosen to participate in this study, they had no prior knowledge of the day the observation was scheduled to take place. If a teacher declined to be observed or was absent on the day of the scheduled observation, an alternate from that school was chosen. Additionally, principals were requested to tell their teachers that the observation would in no way attempt to make any kind of evaluation of the quality of instruction but that it would be merely for the purpose of looking at the frequency of occurrence of

specific behaviors.

Major Findings.

In light of the past research on effective schools and the agreement among many researchers that only about 50% of the school day is used for instruction (Karwait, 1984), the findings from this study are presented. Table 1 reports the total on- and off-task percents of special education teachers in the two school systems chosen for this study.

As was stated previously, on-task was divided into two areas. On-task Level I was composed of those areas dealing specifically with instruction, i.e., set, instruction, monitoring and adjusting, supervising practice, closure, and instructional management. The average percentage across both systems was 52.3%.

Table 1 also displays On-Task Level II percentages. Included in this major on-task grouping are clerical management, transition, and uninvolved but supervising. Again, these are the things which are required of a teacher but are not directly related to instructing a student. The average of all teachers in On-Task Level II was 32.2%.

Also included in this table are the off-task percents for the teachers in this study. Interruptions, socialization, and total uninvolvement by the teacher comprise this area. Across both systems an average of 15.5% was attributed to off-task be-

TABLE 1

PERCENT OF TIME-ON-TASK LEVEL I, LEVEL II, AND OFF-TASK FOR INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS, WINTER 1988

Teacher	On-Task Level I	On-Task Level II	Off-Task
1	43.4	31.2	25.4
2	57.5	25.3	17.2
3	49.4	24.5	26.1
4	62.7	24.2	13.1
5	67.4	21.9	10.7
6	68.4	21.1	10.4
7	69.7	18.8	11.6
8	46.2	28.8	24.9
9	45.0	41.1	14.0
10	65.1	18.8	16.1
11	44.3	33.3	22.4
12	46.7	32.9	20.3
13	66.1	28.9	5.0
14	50.1	36.6	13.2
15	74.3	16.7	9.0
16	40.6	46.9	12.4
17	54.7	26.3	18.9
18	41.0	38.2	20.8
19	62.0	23.0	14.9
20	28.5	53.7	17.7
21	50.4	36.1	13.5
22	60.1	30.1	9.8
23	52.1	29.7	18.3
24	39.9	39.0	21.1
25	32.8	52.9	13.4
26	38.8	47.7	14.2
27	50.1	35.9	14.2
28	44.0	48.2	7.7
29	60.5	26.2	13.4
30	56.2	28.2	15.5
Mean	52.3	32.2	15.5
SD	11.4	10.0	5.2

haviors. It should be noted that lunch and other breaks in routine are included in these data.

To get a closer look at how at time was used in the special education classroom, individual categories were examined. Table 2 displays the component areas of On-Task Level I by teacher. It is notable that eleven teachers were observed spending no time in the closure category, while one teacher used none in the category of set.

Direct instruction received the highest average percentage in this major area, that being 24.0%. The other category receiving a high percentage of On-Task Level I was instructional management, which included those management activities which were directly associated with delivering instruction to students. Lesson planning and IEP, or individualized educational program, development/writing were major consumers of time in this area. The average percentage of all teachers in both systems was 20.4%.

On-Task Level II by category is displayed in Table 3. These are required activities but are not related to instruction. By far the highest average percentage was in the category of clerical management; a mean for all teachers of 20.8% was recorded. The categories of transition and uninvolved but supervising accounted for smaller percentages of time, with transition averaging 4.6% for all teachers and uninvolved but supervising averaging 6.9%. Teachers across the two schools systems averaged 84.5% of their time in on-task behaviors; this, of course, comprises

TABLE 2

PERCENT OF TEACHER TIME-ON-TASK LEVEL I BY CATEGORY, WINTER 1988

Teacher	Set	Instruction	Monitor and Adjust	Supervising Practice	Closure	Instructional Management
1	.9	12.8	2.2	2.8	.2	24.5
2	.4	26.6	3.6	12.1	.1	14.7
3	.8	17.2	1.7	1.3	.3	28.1
4	1.0	25.8	.6	2.1	.0	33.2
5	.9	19.7	6.5	3.6	.6	36.1
6	1.2	19.9	8.8	4.1	.8	33.6
7	1.3	46.6	2.0	.0	.8	19.0
8	.3	.6	.9	.8	.0	43.6
9	.7	40.8	.0	.0	.9	2.6
10	.4	33.9	6.8	3.5	.8	19.7
11	.8	15.4	2.9	6.9	.0	18.3
12	.6	22.2	2.9	.1	.0	20.9
13	1.0	47.0	.6	.0	.2	17.3
14	.5	7.8	5.7	1.7	.0	34.4
15	.4	49.7	3.0	3.8	.0	17.4
16	1.1	30.9	1.8	.0	.6	6.2
17	.0	6.3	8.8	.0	.4	39.2
18	.5	16.0	5.3	3.3	.2	15.7
19	.3	31.5	16.1	4.7	.5	8.9
20	.3	8.1	5.5	1.9	.0	12.7
21	1.0	8.2	2.8	1.2	.6	36.6
22	1.4	35.4	4.4	2.7	.1	16.1
23	.9	23.4	7.2	8.8	.0	11.8
24	.2	20.8	1.7	.0	.0	17.2
25	.5	22.3	6.7	.4	.2	2.7

TABLE 2 (continued)

Teacher	Set	Instruction	Monitor and Adjust	Supervising Practice	Closure	Instructional Management
26	.2	23.9	1.6	.0	.3	12.8
27	.4	16.2	4.8	3.5	.0	25.2
28	.2	29.9	7.9	.1	.0	5.9
29	.9	37.3	5.3	1.0	.4	15.6
30	.4	25.0	6.8	2.7	.1	21.2
Mean	.7	24.0	4.5	2.4	.3	20.4
SD	.4	12.4	3.3	2.8	.3	10.9

TABLE 3

PERCENT OF TEACHER TIME-ON-TASK LEVEL II BY CATEGORY, WINTER 1988

Teacher	Clerical Management	Transition	Uninvolved But Supervising
1	16.6	.6	14.0
2	21.5	2.6	1.2
3	23.6	.7	.2
4	13.9	3.5	6.8
5	20.4	1.0	.5
6	12.7	1.8	6.6
7	15.2	2.4	1.2
8	15.2	1.3	12.3
9	35.8	5.3	.0
10	17.8	1.0	.0
11	17.9	1.8	13.6
12	24.2	4.0	4.7
13	16.0	12.9	.0
14	16.8	2.9	16.9
15	13.0	3.7	.0
16	16.9	5.8	24.2
17	13.7	5.3	7.3
18	28.3	6.5	3.4
19	21.5	1.5	.0
20	37.8	11.6	4.3
21	26.4	4.0	5.7
22	20.1	9.2	.8
23	23.6	5.2	.9
24	21.1	8.8	9.1
25	30.5	8.2	14.2
26	31.3	5.1	11.3
27	14.6	6.7	14.6
28	11.1	4.4	32.7
29	22.1	4.0	.1
30	23.2	5.0	.0
Mean	20.8	4.6	6.9
SD	6.7	3.1	8.0

tasks related to instruction and to other required elements of the teaching job.

Off-task categories are presented in Table 4. Socialization accounted for the highest percentage of off-task behavior with an average of 9.3% recorded for teachers across the two systems. Interruptions and total uninvolvement accounted for 3.6% and 2.7% respectively. Interruptions were noted as occurring from within the classroom or from outside the classroom. An inside interruption was anything which necessitated that the teacher stop whatever he\she was doing and address an unrelated matter, i.e., student misbehaviors, non-academic questions, etc. Interruptions from outside the classroom, such as visitors, intercom system announcements, fire drills, and tardy students accounted for an average of only .6% for all teachers.

Just a cursory look at the tables on the previous pages reveals that management activities, either related or unrelated to the instructional process, comprise a major part of the special education teacher's day. For these teachers of the handicapped, writing in-depth IEP's for each student annually and keeping written documentation of each encounter with parents and other adults involved in the students' educational programming is routine and becomes a vast consumer of teachers' time.

Comparisons of the data from this special education teacher time-on-task study with that from Richards' 1985 study in grades three, four, and five are made in the next three tables. Table 5

TABLE 4

PERCENT OF TEACHER TIME-OFF-TASK BY CATEGORY, WINTER 1988

Teacher	Interruptions	Socialization	Uninvolvement
1	3.1	18.1	4.2
2	5.2	4.8	7.2
3	5.4	11.6	9.1
4	5.2	5.0	2.9
5	7.7	1.2	1.8
6	2.6	6.6	1.2
7	3.9	5.6	2.1
8	1.2	21.3	2.4
9	.7	10.8	2.5
10	6.3	8.2	1.6
11	2.6	19.0	.8
12	3.1	12.3	4.9
13	1.9	3.1	.0
14	2.4	7.0	3.8
15	3.2	3.9	2.0
16	.9	8.3	3.2
17	3.1	11.1	4.7
18	3.6	14.3	2.9
19	6.8	7.9	.2
20	8.0	6.8	2.9
21	1.9	9.0	2.6
22	2.8	6.4	.6
23	2.6	14.1	1.6
24	3.4	13.2	4.5
25	4.1	7.5	2.7
26	4.9	8.4	.1
27	4.2	8.6	1.4
28	.3	5.8	1.6
29	3.4	6.9	3.1
30	2.2	11.5	1.8
Mean	3.6	9.3	2.7
SD	1.9	4.6	2.0

compares the on- and off-task means from the two studies. Total teacher on-task mean for the 1985 study was 81.7%, while that for the current study was 84.5%. Likewise, teachers were found to be off-task an average of 18.1% of the time in Richards' study. In the special education study teachers were off-task an average of 15.5% of the time.

Table 6 presents the on-task categories as they were reported from the two studies. It should be mentioned that instructional management and clerical management are shown together as one average, since this division was not made for the 1985 study as it was for the present one. In both studies management was seen to occupy the greatest amount of teachers' time, as evidenced by an average of 46.2% in the 1985 study and 41.2% in the special education study. From this it appears that teachers in both regular education and those in special education are managers for almost 50% of their entire school day.

Table 7 displays the data comparing the off-task behaviors of teachers in both studies. Only those categories that were considered off-task by both researchers are included. Total time off-task was similar for both studies, 18.1% for the teachers in the 1985 study and 15.6% for those in the present study. It is interesting to note that the low of 3.4% for regular education teachers and 3.6% for special education teachers from interruptions reveals that neither group was an extreme victim of the time consumer; this is in contrast to the research which shows

TABLE 5

COMPARISON OF SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER ON- AND OFF-TASK PERCENTS WITH DATA FROM 1985 STUDY OF REGULAR EDUCATION STUDENTS

Study	Number of Teachers Observed	Total On-Task Mean %	Total Off-Task Mean %
1985 Study (Grades 3-5)	38	81.7[a]	18.1
Special Education Study	30	84.5	15.5

[a]Transition and uninvolved but supervising are included for the purpose of comparison.

TABLE 6

COMPARISON OF SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER PERCENT OF TIME-ON-TASK WITH 1985 STUDY OF REGULAR EDUCATION STUDENTS BY CATEGORY MEANS

Study	Number of Teachers Observed	Set	Ins.	Monitor and Adjust	Supervise Practice	Closure	Mgt.[a]	Transition[b]	Uninvolved but Supervising[b]	Total Time-On Task
1985 Study (Grades 3-5)	38	1.2	21.3	.7	4.7	.2	46.2	2.3	5.1	81.7
Special Education Study	30	.7	24.0	4.5	2.4	.3	41.2	4.6	6.9	84.5

[a]Includes instructional and clerical management.

[b]Included for the purpose of comparison.

that interruptions account for a major portion of off-task behaviors (Harrison, 1983).

Looking at similarities in the two studies or how the data from the two studies compare, it seems reasonable to state that special education teachers in general use their time in a manner similar to that of regular education teachers. On- and off-task percents were similar for the two groups of teachers. Weaknesses were shown in the areas of set and closure, and management occupied the greatest amount of time for teachers in both studies, indicating that teachers are truly managers.

The data comparing elementary and secondary special education teachers relative to the average amount of time spent in on- and off-task behaviors are shown in Table 8. Elementary teachers averaged 51.6% of their time in On-Task Level I behaviors (those directly related to the instructional process) and 33.5% of their time in On-Task Level II behaviors (unrelated to teaching but essential). In contrast, secondary special education teachers averaged slightly more time in On-Task Level I behaviors (53.5%) and less time in the On-Task Level II categories (29.5%). Off-task behaviors were close, 14.8% for elementary teachers and 16.9% for secondary teachers.

A chi-square analysis reported in Table 9 indicates that there was a difference in time-on-task between these two groups of teachers, other than what might be expected by chance alone. Elementary teachers were more likely to be On-Task Level II than

TABLE 7

COMPARISON OF PERCENTS OF SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHER TIME-OFF-TASK WITH 1985 STUDY OF REGULAR EDUCATION STUDENTS BY CATEGORY MEANS

Study	Number of Teachers	Interruptions	Socialization	Uninvolved	Total Time-Off-Task
1985 Study (Grades 3-5)	38	3.4	10.7	4.0	18.1
Special Education Study	30	3.6	9.3	2.7	15.6

TABLE 8

TEACHER TIME-ON-TASK LEVEL I, LEVEL II, AND OFF-TASK PERCENTS BY GRADE CLASSIFICATION

Grade Classification	Number	On-Task Level I Mean	On-Task Level II Mean	Off-Task Mean
Elementary	20	51.6	33.5	14.8
Secondary	10	53.5	29.5	16.9
Total	30	52.2	32.2	15.5

were secondary teachers. On the other hand, secondary teachers were more likely to be On-Task Level I or Off-Task than were elementary teachers.

One of the resources commonly found in self-contained settings is the paraprofessional. Table 10 displays the data comparing on- and off-task behaviors of teachers who have paraprofessional assistance with those who do not have this kind of help in their classrooms. A chi-square analysis of on- and off-task behaviors of these two groups of teachers can be seen in Table 11. It indicates that there was a significant difference in time use categories between teachers with paraprofessionals and those without paraprofessionals. Surprisingly, teachers with paraprofessional assistance were less likely to exhibit On-Task Level I behaviors than were teachers without paraprofessionals. However, those teachers who had paraprofessional assistance were more likely to be On-Task Level II than those who did not have such assistance. Regarding off-task behaviors, teachers were paraprofessional assistance were less likely to be off-task than were teachers without paraprofessional assistance in their classrooms, although the differences were small. From this it appears that teachers who have paraprofessional assistance are more likely to be engaged in behaviors which are on-task, but not related to instruction, whereas teachers who must operate their classrooms alone are more likely to be engaged in behaviors related directly to the instructional process.

TABLE 9

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF ELEMENTARY/SECONDARY TEACHERS

	On-Task		Off-Task
	L-I	L-II	Mean
Elementary Teachers	10,686	6,907	3,068
Secondary Teachers	5,403	2,972	1,710

$X^2 = 56.89$

Critical value, $\alpha = .01$, 2 df: $X^2 \geq 9.21$

TABLE 10

TEACHER TIME-ON-TASK LEVEL I, LEVEL II, AND OFF-TASK PERCENTS WITH AND WITHOUT PARAPROFESSIONAL ASSISTANCE

	Number of Teachers	On-Task Level I Mean	On-Task Level II Mean	Off-Task Mean
With Paraprofessional Assistance	8	49.2	35.6	15.2
Without Paraprofessional Assistance	22	53.4	31.0	15.6
Total	30	52.3	32.2	15.5

TABLE 11

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF TEACHERS WITH/WITHOUT PARAPROFESSIONAL ASSISTANCE

	On-Task		Off-Task
	L-I	L-II	
With Paraprofessional Assistance	4,025	2,923	1,249
Without Paraprofessional Assistance	12,064	6,956	3,529

$X^2 = 66.19$

Critical value, $\alpha = .01$, 2 df: $X^2 \geq 9.21$

TABLE 12

TEACHER TIME-ON-TASK LEVEL I, LEVEL II, AND OFF-TASK PERCENTS BY MORNING AND AFTERNOON CATEGORY

Observed	Number of Teachers	On-Task Level I Mean	On-Task Level II Mean	Off-Task Mean
Morning	15	58.2	27.4	14.4
Afternoon	15	46.3	37.0	16.6
Total	30	52.3	32.2	15.5

Table 12 displays the data comparing on- and off-task behaviors for morning and afternoon observations. It is not surprising to see that On-Task Level I behaviors were recorded for teachers observed in the morning hours an average of 58.2% of the time. The chi-square analysis reported in Table 13 reveals that there is a difference in the frequency of occurrence of on- and off-task behaviors between morning and afternoon observations, i.e., special education teachers observed in the morning hours between 7:30 a.m. and 11:30 a.m. or between 8:00 a.m. and 12:00 p.m. were more likely to exhibit On-Task Level I behaviors (those related to the instructional process) than were those teachers observed in the afternoon from 11:30 a.m. to 3:30 p.m. or from 12:00 p.m. to 4:00 p.m. As might be expected, the morning hours appear to be the time in which the maximum amount of instruction takes place in the special education classrooms in this study.

Implications.

Since nearly twice as much time was spent in management as in direct instruction by teachers in this study, it is obvious that training in management skills and techniques of assertive discipline need to be provided through inservice and staff development activities. These activities should focus on the effective and efficient use of time in the classroom. Furthermore, teacher training institutions should emphasize the importance of

TABLE 13

CHI-SQUARE ANALYSIS OF MORNING/AFTERNOON OBSERVATIONS

	On-Task		Off-Task
	L-I	L-II	
Morning Observations	8,937	4,166	2,202
Afternoon Observations	7,152	5,713	2,576

$X^2 = 468.98$

Critical value, $\alpha = .01$, 2 df: $X^2 \geq 9.21$

good management skills, for this is an area in which many new or inexperienced teachers have difficulty. Perhaps the incorporation of a course in management skills into the current program of study would be appropriate. From the present study, it is obvious that special education teachers need much assistance in reducing the amount of time given to management.

Local school district special education directors and budget officers should consider the addition of paraprofessionals to all special education classrooms, not just those with heavy caseloads or severely handicapped students. Since the demand for accurate and in-depth IEP's and other record-keeping will continue to be a reality for these teachers, the amount of time required for this management activity could be reduced by the assistance of paraprofessionals.

The data from this study pointed to the fact that special education teachers do not regularly apply the techniques of set (initial focus) and closure (summarizing) to lessons. Since research indicates that successful lessons contain these component parts, teachers should be instructed in the use of these techniques and encouraged to utilize them daily.

From this study, it appears that the role of the paraprofessional in the special education setting should be examined and more clearly defined. Training should be provided to both teachers and paraprofessionals by school system administrators in the appropriate use of the paraprofessional in the classroom.

Since it has been shown that management activities consume so much of the special education teacher's time (41.2%), paraprofessionals could be trained and utilized to carry out more of these activities, thus relieving the teacher to spend more time in instructional activities. Countless management activities could be turned over to the trained paraprofessional. Running copies, counting money, setting up equipment, accompanying students to other areas of the building, and correcting or sorting papers (under teacher supervision) are just a few of the tasks which could be performed by paraprofessionals.

A final implication of this study would be that a future study be conducted to examine the interactive nature of the professional and paraprofessional in the special education setting. Included in this study would be a task analysis of jobs, prioritizing them according to difficulty and the level of expertise required to carry them out. Organizational constraints placed on teachers relative to the use of paraprofessionals in their classrooms should be investigated. Actual and perceived constraints should be examined, with the intent to clarify a teacher-paraprofessional relationship that both supports and enhances the instructional process. It would be hoped that such a study would support what research has indicated i.e., more direct instruction leads to increased student learning.

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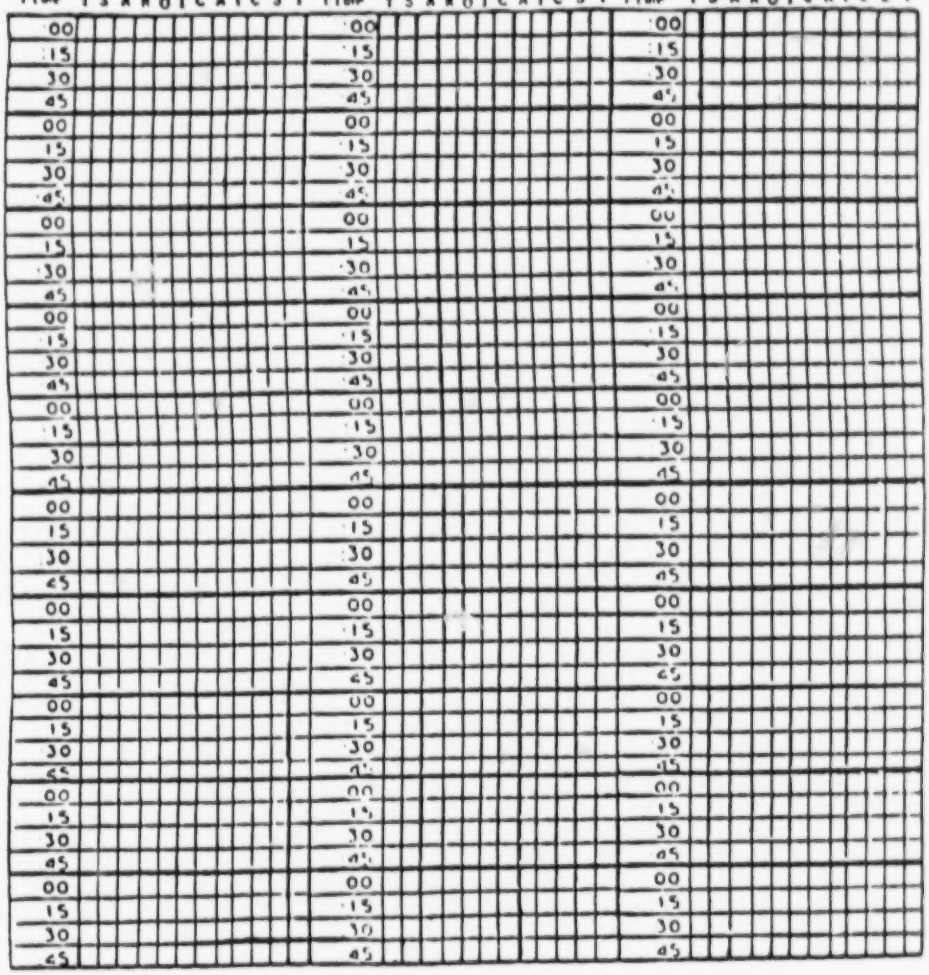
APPENDIX

TEACHER OBSERVATION FORM

System No.____ Grade Category____ Type of Handicap____
Resource/Self-Contained____ Teacher No.____ Time Mgmt. Trng.____
No. of Hrs.____ Paraprofessional Present____ Date_____



Introduction

The effective schools literature has consistently identified principals as central figures in fostering schools that successfully educate children (Edmonds, 1979; Brookover and Lezotte, 1979; Weber, 1971; Shoemaker and Fraser, 1981). A study of the characteristics of principals of successful elementary schools (Goldhammer and Becker, 1971) found that more successful schools were characterized by high morale, enthusiasm, and adaptability. They were uplifting places to visit and inhabit.

Almost all of the studies on effective schools agree that school leaders created a climate that was orderly and safe, with a sense of purpose. Also, the leader's behavior inspired staff and students to reach goals.

The principal is the key to school effectiveness (Duke, 1982; Robinson & Black, 1982). Principals are expected to be instructional leaders, innovators, curriculum developers, business managers, and community liaisons. Other expectations were identified by Gottfredson and Hybl (1987) who used a structured task analysis inventory to study a random sample of 1,153 principals in a nationwide survey. The responses to the 149 item questionnaire resulted in the identification of fourteen job factors judged to be most important by the respondents.

These fourteen job factors included: Staff Direction and Visibility; Observation and Feedback; Planning and Action for School Improvement; Personnel Management; Policy Development; Keeping Up-to-Date; Instructional Management; Student Interaction and Social Control; Parent and Community Relations; School-System Interaction; Coping with Disorder; Budget Management; Co-Curricular Activity; and Union Negotiation.

Generally it is believed that instructional leadership activities, student relationships, and professional development activities should be the principal's highest priority and that management routines should, in comparison, be deemphasized. Studies of actual time use by principals typically contradict this belief. Howell (1981), for example, found that the principals he studied spent the greater proportion of time in the office, responding to communications and otherwise engaged in "office work." Instructional leadership categories, by contrast, received considerably less attention. Several studies have provided task analyses that portray busy, fragmented days for school administrators (Weldy, 1979; Martin & Willower, 1981) with little direct time for instructional leadership or reflection (Morris, et al. 1982).

When school principals are asked to report how they would like to spend time at work, they often respond quite differently than when reporting their actual tasks and the time spent on these tasks. The actual tasks and time of principals at work are often at variance from what experts describe as the ideal. A hiatus clearly exists between real and ideal images of the principalship.

Some of the existing studies on principal activities have

consisted of the reporting and analysis of daily logs kept by the principals themselves (e.g., Howell, 1981; Andrews & Hallett, 1983; and Stronge & McVeain, 1986). Observational studies of principal use of time were first reported by Wolcott (1973) and Peterson (1977). Their studies consisted of samples of only one and two elementary principals, respectively. Other comprehensive observational studies found in the literature included studies by Morris, et al. (1981, 1982, 1984), Little & Bird (1984), and Dwyer, & et al. (1987). These studies included the observation of a wide range of subject ability and organizational levels. In no case was there a study of the observed behaviors of effective elementary principals compared with their estimated use of time during the observations.

Some of the research that has been completed to date has dealt with surveys of average principals from the elementary, middle/junior high and high school levels as a group. Andrews & Hallett (1983) used a sample of 1,006 principals from the state of Washington who were asked to keep a daily log. Howell (1981) conducted a three phase study of principals from Arkansas and Oklahoma, as well as a nationally surveyed sample. Stronge and McVeain (1986) surveyed fifty-four principals from both private and public schools in central Illinois. Other studies done at all levels involved shadowing. Morris & et al. (1981, 1982, 1984) shadowed 24 principals from the inner and outer-city Chicago schools. Dwyer, & et al. (1987) shadowed and interviewed seventeen principals over a two-year period.

Krajewski (1978), Martin & Willower (1981), Berman (1982), and Little & Bird (1984) all reported studies of high school principals only. Wolcott (1973), who observed one principal, and Peterson (1977),

who observed two principals, undertook early studies of elementary level principals. Alkire & Dorin (1979) compared the activities of twenty elementary principals to those of twenty industrial middle managers and Kmetz and Willower (1982) studied the work behavior of elementary principals. No evidence can be found of a study which compares the observed use of time of identified effective elementary level principals with their estimated use of time. Additional information is needed which will accurately describe the activities that consume an elementary principal's day. Once this information is available, strategies to contribute to the improvement of principal effectiveness can be developed and implemented.

The purpose of this study was to determine through observation the behaviors of elementary school principals and record their uses of time. Additionally, it was the purpose of the study to compare the observations of principal behavior with their self-reported estimates of time use for the same period of time.

The following research questions were stated to give focus to the study:

1. What behaviors are exhibited by elementary school principals on a day-to-day basis?

2. How much time do elementary school principals spend on each of their observable behaviors?

3. What proportion of the principals' day is spent in various on and off-task categories?

4. How closely do principals' own estimates of the use of their time in various categories of behaviors compare with what was observed?

Methodology

Gottfredson and Hybl (1987) developed a 149 item questionnaire, the Inventory of the School Administrator's Job, for use with a nation-wide sample of school principals. The responses given by the sample were categorized into the fourteen most important job factors for principals. These fourteen job factors were utilized in developing an instrument to record the subjects' use of time during each observation for this study. One job factor, Observation and Feedback, was incorporated with Personnel Management. Two factors were considered to be inappropriate for this study. Union Negotiation was not included because none of the systems from which the sample was taken are involved in collective bargaining with unions. Co-Curricular Activity was also deleted for this category of behavior is more likely to occur at the secondary level of education. However, if during the observations either or both of the behaviors were observed, a notation was made under the heading of "Other", as an anecdotal record. The remaining eleven factors were selected by the researcher for inclusion in the the observation instrument developed for this study. Five additional categories (Interruption, Office Management, Socialization, Unaccounted, and Other) were included based on recent summaries of research on principal behavior (Blumberg and Greenfield, 1986; Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan, and Lee, 1982; Duke and Imber, 1985; Little and Bird, 1984; Manasse, 1985) and the recommendations of four elementary school principals who reviewed the instrument.

The categories of principal behavior were grouped as follows: Future Benefit Items (Budget Management, Instructional Management, Keeping Up-to-Date, Planning and Action for School Improvement, and

Policy Development); Immediate Benefit Items (Coping with Disorder, Office Management, Parent-Community Relations and Visibility, Personnel Management, School-System Interaction, Staff Direction and Visibility, and Student Interaction-Social Control and Visibility); Off-Task Items (Interruption, Socialization, and Unaccounted); and Other. Consistency relating to category classification was based upon the researcher's adherence to the definitions of job factor terms. Qualitative judgments were a part of the observations. All principal behaviors were identified and reported as low inference frequency data.

Trial observations were conducted using the instrument with two principals not included in the sample to determine if there were behaviors which were not covered by the instrument. After making the appropriate changes, the instrument was accepted with face validity.

A list of all Tennessee public school principals with Career Ladder Level III status was obtained from the Tennessee State Department of Education. Level III principals were chosen because they demonstrated the skills necessary to attain the highest level of administrative certification from the Tennessee State Department of Education. The sample selected for the study included one Career Ladder Level III principal from each of five small school systems with enrollments of 2,500 to 5,500 students located in Northeast Tennessee. All subjects in the sample were males ranging from thirty-seven to fifty-five years of age. All subjects had earned Master's degrees with two subjects having also earned Education Specialist degrees. Educational experience for the sample ranged from five to twelve years of teaching and eight to twenty-five years in administration. The schools administered by the sample had enrollments ranging from 240 to

456 students and supervisory responsibility for nineteen to thirty-three certified staff members.

The observation instrument containing principal behavior categories and the time recorded in fifteen-second intervals was used to chart all principal activities. (See Appendix A.) All observations were unannounced and the principals' order of observation was randomly determined. Each participant in the study was observed three times, with each observation being a full day. All observations were completed between December and February of the 1988-89 school year. Fifteen full day observations were made for a total of 121 hours and thirty-four minutes of observation. Daily observations ranged from seven hours and ten minutes to eight hours and fifty-five minutes in length. The researcher conducted all observations.

At the completion of the first day of observation, each participant completed a questionnaire giving his estimate of what percent of the day he was involved in each of the behavior categories. (See Appendix B.) Each principal was given a set of definitions for the categories to use in completing this form. (See Appendix C.)

Descriptive analysis included data that were compiled by individual behavior categories in fifteen-second intervals. The data was also compiled in groupings according to immediate benefit, future benefit, or off-task. Inferential statistics were not used since a random selection of subjects was not possible.

Major Findings

The observation instrument developed for this study identified fourteen categories of behavior for recording time use. Those

activities which did not fit in any of these categories were recorded under the category "Other".

Table I reports the total amount of time used by all principals for each of the behavior categories and the percent of time each behavior was observed compared to the total amount of observation time. time devoted to "Office Management" and "Unaccounted" consumed a greater portion of the principals' day than all other behaviors. Other behaviors which were frequently observed included "School-System Interaction" and "Staff Direction and Visibility".

Other behaviors having lesser, but comparable amounts of time use were "Student Interaction and Social Control", "Parent and Community Relations and Visibility", "Personnel Management", and "Instructional Management". Those behaviors having the least amount of observed time included "Socialization", "Budget Management", "Keeping Up-to-date", and "Planning and Action for School Improvement".

"Coping with Disorder" was only observed on one occasion for an insignificant amount of time. "Policy Development" was the only behavior not observed during the fifteen days of observation. The absence of this category of behavior may be explained by the fact that policy development frequently occurs prior to or early in a school year, with only the occasional revision of rules, policies, or procedures taking place as the school year proceeds.

Observed behaviors not fitting in the fourteen preceding categories were included in the "Other" category. These activities were limited to building maintenance and a conversation with a coordinator of student teachers.

During the observations, principals were frequently interrupted

TABLE I

TOTAL USE OF TIME (AND PERCENT) BY CATEGORY
OF BEHAVIOR FOR ALL PRINCIPALS IN THE STUDY

*Behavior	Total Time Observed	**Percent of Total Time
CD	:45	.01
OM	2458:15	33.70
PCRV	408:30	5.60
PM	392:45	5.38
SSI	882:45	12.10
SDV	689:15	9.44
SISC	500:15	6.85
BM	145:15	1.99
IM	312:15	4.28
KUD	69:15	.94
PASI	26:15	.35
PD	:00	.00
S	176:30	2.41
U	1106:45	15.17
OTHER	125:00	1.71
TOTAL	7294:00	(100.00)

*Behavior Codes

CD: Coping with Disorder
OM: Office Management
PCRV: Parent and Community Relations and Visibility
PM: Personnel Management
SSI: School-System Interaction
SDV: Staff Direction and Visibility
SISC: Student Interaction and Social Control
BM: Budget Management
IM: Instructional Management
KUD: Keeping Up-to-date
PASI: Planning and Action for School Improvement
PD: Policy Development
S: Socialization
U: Unaccounted
OTHER: Activities not covered by other categories

**Rounding errors prevent column from totaling 100%.

while involved in a task. At the end of the first day's observation each principal was asked to estimate the number of times he had been interrupted during the course of the day. Table II shows a comparison of the number of observed interruptions for each principal compared with his estimated number of interruptions. The number of observed interruptions ranged from twelve to thirty-nine. In all cases the number of estimated interruptions was less than the number of observed interruptions. The number of observed interruptions were from two to four times greater than the estimated number of interruptions.

The research findings in Table III summarize the total amount of time that each principal in the study was involved in each of the behaviors and the total time for all principals in each category of behavior. Table III also displays the number (frequency) of times that each principal was involved in a behavior and the total number of times all principals were engaged in each behavior. The time reported in Table III were taken at fifteen second intervals. Also depicted in Table III is the percent of time of each behavior compared to the total time of all behaviors.

Time spent in "Office Management" behaviors utilized 33.7% of the total observation time during the study. Principals not only spend more time on "Office Management" activities, but also were observed more (392 times) in this category of behavior.

Table IV shows that telephone calls for individual principals took from 9.99% to 32.98% of the time devoted to "Office Management". Telephone calls took 23.06% of the total "Office Management" time and 7.77% of the total observation time during the study.

The range in the total number of telephone calls was rather

TABLE II

INTERRUPTIONS OF PRINCIPAL BEHAVIOR
(Estimated Compared to Actual)

	Principal #				
	1	2	3	4	5
Estimated # of Interruptions	10	5	6	10	6
Observed # of Interruptions	24	15	14	39	12

TABLE III

PRINCIPAL TOTAL USE OF TIME BY BEHAVIOR CATEGORY
AND FREQUENCY OF OBSERVED BEHAVIORS

*Category of Behavior	Principal 1		Principal 2		Principal 3		Principal 4		Principal 5		Total	Total	% of
	**Obser. Time	F Ob.	Obser. Time	F Ob.	Obser. Time	F Ob.	Obser. Time	F Ob.	Obser. Time	F Ob.	Obser. Time	F Ob.	Total Time
CD			:45	1							:45	1	.01
OM	683:15	84	460:30	61	454:45	90	305:45	90	554:00	67	2458:15	392	33.70
PCRV	52:00	7	107:15	15	31:00	11	91:45	14	126:30	9	408:30	56	5.60
PM	174:15	27	91:45	4	88:45	10	6:30	4	31:30	1	392:45	46	5.39
SSI	68:00	4	255:45	5	210:00	10	75:30	8	273:30	9	882:45	36	12.10
SDV	154:15	91	131:15	64	147:45	76	163:00	68	92:45	37	689:00	336	9.45
SISC	73:15	43	120:00	41	81:15	45	181:30	68	44:15	7	500:15	204	6.86
BM			9:15	2	:30	2	127:00	17	8:30	6	145:15	27	1.99
IM	:30	1					224:30	34	87:45	2	312:45	37	4.29
KUD	13:45	5	8:15	3	:45	1	46:30	6			69:15	15	.95
PASI							9:00	1	17:15	1	26:15	2	.36
PD													
S	40:00	45	50:45	29	38:00	49	8:15	17	39:30	23	176:30	163	2.42
U	177:45	98	273:00	67	300:15	52	130:30	94	225:15	51	1106:45	352	15.17
OTHER	12:00	4	20:30	4	62:00	7	24:15	5	6:15	2	125:00	22	1.71
TOTAL		409		296		353		426		215		1699	(100%)

*Category Codes

CD: Coping with Disorder
OM: Office Management
PCRV: Parent and Community Relations and Visibility
PM: Personnel Management
SSI: School-System Interaction
SDV: Staff Direction and Visibility
SISC: Student Interaction and Social Control
BM: Budget Management
IM: Instructional Management
KUD: Keeping Up-to-date
PASI: Planning and Action for School Improvement
PD: Policy Development
S: Socialization
U: Unaccounted
OTHER: Activities not covered by other categories

**Column Heading Explanations:

Obser. Time--the number of minutes and seconds the principal was observed engaged in the behavior.
F Ob.--the frequency that the principal was observed engaged in the behavior.
% of Total Time--the percent of total time of each behavior compared to the total time of all behaviors.

TABLE IV

PRINCIPALS' USE OF TELEPHONE--TOTAL CALLS, TIME USED, PERCENT OF OFFICE MANAGEMENT TIME, AND PERCENT OF TOTAL OBSERVATION TIME

Principal #	Total Telephone Calls	Total Telephone *Time	Total OM Time	% of OM Time	Total Obser. Time	% of Obser. Time
1	60	225.38	683.25	32.98	1449	15.55
2	19	46.03	460.5	9.99	1529	3.01
3	31	80.05	454.75	17.6	1415	5.65
4	35	79.81	305.75	26.1	1394	5.72
5	25	135.76	554.0	24.5	1507	9.00
Total	170	567.05	2458.25	**23.06	7294	**7.77

*Time is recorded in minutes.
**Percent of total time.

wide with the smallest number of calls by a principal being nineteen and the most calls totaling sixty. Of the 170 total calls recorded during the observations, more calls (ninety-seven) were outgoing than incoming.

"Unaccounted" activities consumed the second largest percent (15.17) of time and also was observed on 352 different occasions. The predominant activity in this category was the time spent for lunch. Movement within the building and bathroom breaks accounted for lesser amounts of time in this category.

"School-System Interaction" consumed 12.1% of the total observation time. However, this behavior was observed on only thirty-six occasions. Frequently this category of behavior consisted of meetings outside the principals' buildings and were usually uninterrupted and of longer duration.

"Staff Direction and Visibility" was recorded 9.45% of the total time. The activities in this category were usually of much shorter duration in that the activity was observed 336 times. Brief meetings with teachers to respond to questions and walk-through visits in classrooms accounted for much of the time for this category.

Four behaviors ["Student Interaction and Social Control" (6.86%), "Parent and Community Relations and Visibility" (5.6%), "Personnel Management" (5.39%), and "Instructional Management" (4.29%0] were recorded using similar amounts of time. "Student Interaction and Social Control" had a far greater frequency (204 times) of occurrence than the other three behaviors.

Limited amounts of time were devoted to "Socialization" (2.4%), "Budget Management" (1.99%), "Keeping Up-to-date" (.95%), and "Planning

and Action for School Improvement (.36%). The frequency of observation for "Socialization" (163 times) far exceeded the other behaviors with comparable amounts of time use.

"Coping with Disorder" was observed on only one occasion for a total of forty-five seconds. "Policy Development" was not observed during the course of this study. The category labeled "Other" accounted for only 1.71% of the observed time for the study.

The categories of behavior for this study were divided into three groups--Future Benefit, Immediate Benefit, and Off-Task. Future benefit behaviors include "Budget Management", "Instructional Management", "Keeping Up-to-date", "Planning and Action for School Improvement", and "Policy Development". Immediate Benefit behaviors include "Coping with disorder", "Office Management", "Parent and Community Relations and Visibility", "Personnel Management", "School-System Interaction", "Staff Direction and Visibility", and "Student Interaction and Social Control". "Socialization" and "Unaccounted" were categorized as Off-Task. "Other" was not included in either of the three groupings since the behaviors recorded overlapped both the Immediate Benefit and Future Benefit categories.

The percent of time recorded for each principal by category of behavior grouping is presented in Table V. The mean percent for the sample is also provided.

Immediate Benefit behaviors clearly utilized the largest percent of the principals' time. 73.08% was the mean percent of time used by the sample for Immediate Benefit. 17.58% of the time was utilized for behaviors in the Off-Task category while only 7.56% of the time was applied toward Future Benefit behaviors.

TABLE V

PRINCIPAL TOTAL USE OF TIME (BY PERCENT)
ACCORDING TO FUTURE BENEFIT, IMMEDIATE BENEFIT,
OFF-TASK, AND OTHER

Category by Grouping	Principal # 1 %	2 %	3 %	4 %	5 %	Mean %
Future Benefit:						
BM		.60	.03	9.11	.56	1.99
IM	.03			16.10	5.82	4.28
KUD	.94	.53	.05	3.33		.94
PASI				.64	1.14	.35
PD						
TOTAL	.97	1.13	.08	29.18	7.52	7.56
Immediate Benefit:						
CD		.04				.01
OM	47.15	30.11	32.13	21.93	36.76	33.70
PCRV	3.58	7.01	2.19	6.58	8.39	5.60
PM	12.02	6.00	6.27	.46	2.09	5.38
SSI	4.69	16.72	14.84	5.41	18.14	12.10
SDV	10.64	8.58	10.44	11.69	6.15	9.44
SISC	5.05	7.84	5.74	13.02	2.93	6.85
TOTAL	83.13	76.30	71.61	59.09	74.46	73.08
Off-Task:						
S	2.76	3.31	2.68	.59	2.62	2.41
U	12.26	17.85	21.21	9.36	14.94	15.17
TOTAL	15.02	21.16	23.89	9.95	17.56	17.58
Other	.82	1.34	4.38	1.73	.41	1.71

Principal differences become more noticeable when comparing their use of time by grouping. Principal #1 spent 83.13% of his time on Immediate Benefit behaviors and only .97% on Future Benefit while Principal #4 used 59.09% of his time on Immediate Benefit and 29.18% on Future Benefit. Only Principal #4 spent more time on Future Benefit behaviors than on Off-Task behaviors. The range of time spent on Off-Task behaviors went from 9.95% for Principal #4 to 23.89% for Principal #3. Principal #5 came the closest to matching the mean percents in all three categories.

At the end of the first day of observation a Time Use Chart was given to each principal. (See Appendix B.) The principal was asked to recall the events of the day and to estimate the percent of time that he spent on each of the categories of behavior. Definitions for each behavior were given to the principal to assist in his understanding of the behavior terminology. (See Appendix C.)

A comparison of each principal's estimated use of time to the observed use of time for the first day's observation is displayed in Table VI. The estimated and actual times are given in percent.

Principals #2 and #4 came the closest to accurately estimating their use of time in most categories of behavior. With the exception of "Office Management" and "Parent and Community Relations and Visibility", Principal #2 came within three percent or less per behavior category of accurately estimating his use of time. With the exception of "Student Interaction and Social Control", Principal #4 was within five percent or less per behavior category of accurately estimating his use of time.

Principals #1, #3, and #5 were less accurate in their

TABLE VI

A COMPARISON OF PRINCIPALS' ESTIMATED USE OF TIME
TO THE OBSERVED USE OF TIME (BY PERCENT)
FOR THE FIRST DAY'S OBSERVATION

Category of Behavior	Principal # 1		2		3		4		5	
	Est.	Act.	Est.	Act.	Est.	Act.	Est.	Act.	Est.	Act.
CD					5	0			1	0
OM	5	47.95	10	16.37	3	12.13	20	19.24	8	34.26
PCRV	0	.2	5	9.77	10	2.39	5	8.48	15	5.29
PM	55	17.85	5	6.21	10	9.21	1	.46	10	0
SSI	2	0	35	36.6	25	28.38	0	.17	18	17.64
SDV	8	11.53	10	7.03	10	11.77	2	3.43	10	6.71
SISC	2	7.5	10	7.61	10	3.43	15	6.97	5	.29
BM			1	1.15			25	29.53	10	.29
IM	5	.1			10	0	15	14.65	12	14.75
KUD									2	0
PASI					10	0	7	2.09	5	0
PD					2	0				
S	10	1.12	5	2.02	5	2.18	5	.4	2	4.55
U	12	13.46	14	13.19	0	30.41	5	10.05	2	15.63
OTHER	0	.25[1]			0	.05[2]	0	4.47[3]	0	.53[4]

Footnotes: [1]Building Maintenance; [2]Building Maintenance; [3]Building Maintenance; [4]Dialogue with student teacher coordinator.

*Category Codes

CD: Coping with Disorder
OM: Office Management
PCRV: Parent and Community Relations and Visibility
PM: Personnel Management
SSI: School-System Interaction
SDV: Staff Direction and Visibility
SISC: Student Interaction and Social Control
BM: Budget Management
IM: Instructional Management
KUD: Keeping Up-to-date
PASI: Planning and Action for School Improvement
PD: Policy Development
S: Socialization
U: Unaccounted
OTHER: Activities not covered by other categories

estimates. Whereas Principal #2's and #4's greatest difference between estimated and actual use of time was 6.37% and 8.03% respectively, Principal #1's, #3's, and #5's greatest difference between estimated and actual use of time was 42.95%, 30.41%, and 22.26% respectively.

Implications

Many behaviors are exhibited by elementary school principals on a day-to-day basis. However, most of the behaviors are not repeated every day during the year. Some behaviors are more likely to occur at one time than at other times. Principals who plan their days are more likely to achieve their goals than are the principals who allow the day to develop on its own. Those principals who allow "Office Management" to dominate their time will not have the time necessary to engage in other behaviors that are of future benefit.

The principal's day is characterized by many brief activities. Numerous unscheduled verbal contacts occur, especially at the beginning and ending of the school day. These contacts with students, staff, and parents are an important means of communication. Additional training in this area would benefit many principals. When considering the observed behaviors of principals, current training may be contradictory to practice. Training programs should prepare principals for the fragmented, varied, and ambiguous nature of their work lives.

Principals in this study spent little time in "Keeping up-to-date". Time should be taken to review journals, discuss issues with colleagues, and keep abreast of changes in the field. This can be done only when individuals recognize the importance of professional

growth and are willing to set aside the time required to do so.

In that most principals are unable to render accurate estimates of the percentage of time spent on behaviors at the end of a day gives rise to concern about the accuracy of self-reporting on the part of principals. Additional investigations done on the subject should place more emphasis on direct observations, not diaries or other self-reporting instruments.

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APPENDIX A

PRINCIPAL OBSERVATION FORM

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APPENDIX B

TIME USE

Please estimate your approximate percent of time spent today on each of the following categories of behaviors as a principal. These should total 100%. Please refer to the definitions provided.

_____ 1. Coping with Disorder

_____ 2. Office Management

_____ 3. Parent-Community Relations and Visibility

_____ 4. Personnel Management

_____ 5. School-System Interaction

_____ 6. Staff Direction and Visibility

_____ 7. Student Interaction-Social Control and Visibility

_____ 8. Budget Management

_____ 9. Instructional Management

_____ 10. Keeping Up-to-Date

_____ 11. Planning and Action for School Improvement

_____ 12. Policy Development

_____ 13. Socialization

_____ 14. Unaccounted

_____ 15. Other

100% Total

_____ The number of interruptions today.

APPENDIX C

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Instrument Terms:

Budget Management (BM) involves developing budgets and financial plans, overseeing and deciding on expenditures, devising cost containment strategies, planning school maintenance or renovation, and raising money for the school (Gottfredson & Hybl, 1987).

Coping with Disorder (CD) includes unscheduled activities from individuals outside the school such as removing intruders from the school; rendering first aid; interacting with police, fire fighters, or emergency medical personnel; testifying in court; and troubleshooting incidents involving disgruntled persons (Gottfredson & Hybl, 1987).

Instructional Management (IM) includes selecting achievement or competency tests and monitoring the school testing program, analyzing the curriculum to ensure curriculum coverage and articulation, setting specific educational objectives, establishing academic requirements, and planning or organizing curriculum development activities (Gottfredson & Hybl, 1987).

Interruption (I) entails those actions which stop or hinder the completion of a behavior or action. Interruptions include any event which causes the principal to redirect his/her attention; such as telephone calls, unscheduled visits, questions asked, accidents and emergencies, and fire drills.

Keeping Up-to-Date (KUD) includes reading to identify useful research findings or to determine how federal, state, or local regulations affect the school; and visiting other schools to identify effective practices (Gottfredson & Hybl, 1987).

Office Management (OM) includes those behaviors associated with desk work (written communications, processing documents, completing reports, reviewing the mail, telephone calls), making announcements over the public address system, giving directives to clerical and nonteaching staff members, and supervising the overall functioning of the school office.

Other (O) includes those additional activities not covered by the fifteen categories of observable behavior. "Other" activities will be recorded in anecdotal notations.

Parent-Community Relations and Visibility (PCRV) includes meeting with parents and citizens to promote the school or discuss school programs, creating concrete programs to involve parents in school activities, assessing public opinion and developing a public relations plan for the school (Gottfredson & Hybl, 1987).

Personnel Management (PM) includes holding staff meetings, assigning responsibilities to staff, analyzing school personnel needs, observing and reviewing with individual teachers their performance in instruction and classroom management, discussing formal performance evaluations (including observed strengths and weaknesses) with faculty and staff, recommending the promotion or termination of employees, arbitrating disputes and arranging for in-service training (Gottfredson & Hybl, 1987).

Planning and Action for School Improvement (PASI) includes formally assessing the needs of the school, evaluating the effectiveness of school practices, discussing and developing plans for school improvement, setting goals, and establishing policies to cover day-to-day decisionmaking (Gottfredson & Hybl, 1987).

Policy Development (PD) entails those activities to establish or modify policies, especially those related to attendance and discipline; and to oversee or monitor the activities of others in these areas (Gottfredson & Hybl, 1987).

School-System Interaction (SSI) includes negotiating with the district office to revise, change, or update educational goals and objectives or to forestall policies destructive to the school program; interpreting directives from the district office; and conforming school plans or practices to a policy established by higher officials (Gottfredson & Hybl, 1987).

Socialization (S) includes time spent in pleasant conversation with friends, associates, or students on topics unrelated to school.

Staff Direction and Visibility (SDV) includes those tasks related to planning staff meetings, directing and orienting teachers, and establishing one's presence in the school (Gottfredson & Hybl, 1987).

Student Interaction-Social Control and Visibility (SISC) includes those tasks or activities involving interaction with individual students from within the school in matters related to discipline, attendance problems, or academic difficulties; activities related to maintaining order and civility in the school through direct monitoring of and interaction with students; selecting classroom management methods; and establishing one's presence throughout the school (Gottfredson & Hybl, 1987).

Unaccounted (U) involves those activities or behaviors which have nothing to do with the principal carrying out his job assignment. Unaccounted includes day dreaming, rest, bathroom breaks and other nonschool related activities.

Other Terms:

Career Ladder Level III Principals are those principals in the State of Tennessee who qualified for the highest level of certification status through the state evaluation process.

Future Benefit Items are those categories of observable behavior that are conceptual in nature and will culminate in a plan of action for the future. These categories include Budget Management, Instructional Management, Keeping Up-to-Date, Planning and Action for School Improvement, and Policy Development.

Immediate Benefit Items are those categories of observable behavior that can be identified as people oriented and/or result in immediate action. These categories include Coping with Disorder, Office Management, Parent-Community Relations and Visibility, Personnel Management, School-System Interaction, Staff Direction and Visibility, and Student Interaction-Social Control and Visibility.

Off-Task Items are those categories of observable behavior that are not job related, but are not necessarily negative or detrimental. These categories include Interruption, Socialization, and Unaccounted.

THE DAILY ADMINISTRATIVE WORK BEHAVIOR AND ACTIVITIES OF SELECTED SUPERINTENDENTS IN SMALL, MEDIUM, AND LARGE-SIZED SCHOOL SYSTEMS IN THE STATE OF TENNESSEE

Background

Prior to 1970, administrative literature in general and literature about the superintendency of public school systems in particular rarely dealt with the day-to-day work activities and behaviors of administrators. Larson, Bussom, and Vicars aptly stated:

> While school superintendents are in highly visible positions, little is known about what they actually do. Descriptions of school superintendents' general responsibilities and roles abounded in the literature, but they did not answer primary questions concerning the nature of school superintendents' work (1981, p. 1).

Cuban in his book, Urban School Chiefs Under Fire, made the same observation:

> While we know to the penny what salaries administrators received, what degrees they earned, and where they were born, we know very little about what they, as executives, actually do each day (1976a, p. xii).

After an extensive review of the literature, Pitner asked, "What does a superintendent do in the school organization by virtue of his being a superintendent? How does he spend his day? His week? His year?" (1978, p. 1).

In 1973 Mintzberg studied the administrative behaviors of five chief executives (one of whom was a suburban school superintendent) using a structured observational format. The observation instrument classified all managerial tasks/activities into one of five categories: desk work,

telephone calls, scheduled meetings, unscheduled meetings, and tours (1973, p. 33). From his study Mintzberg identified ten roles that could be divided into three groups: Interpersonal roles--figurehead, leader, liaison; Informational roles--monitor, disseminator, and spokesman; and the Decisional roles--entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, and negotiator (1973, pp. 55-94).

Mintzberg was also able to assign one of twelve purposes to each of the activities that involved interpersonal contacts. Since 1970, the Mintzberg (1973), Duignan (1979), Pitner (1978), Feilders (1979), Larson, Bussom, and Vicars (1981), Pitner and Ogawa (1981), Skaggs, (1988), and Vick (1988) studies have documented and identified a number of consistent day-to-day work behaviors of superintendents.

The literature has indicated that most, if not all, of the prominent observational studies conducted to determine the daily work activities of this position have in one form or another adopted or adapted Mintzberg's methodology, observation system, and observation techniques (Duignan, 1980; Feilders, 1979; Pitner, 1978; Pitner & Ogawa, 1981; Larson, et al., 1981; Vick, 1988; and Skaggs 1988). The studies have, with some minor exceptions, supported Mintzberg's original findings, conclusions, and basic propositions, namely:

1. Managers work at an unrelenting pace;
2. Managers' work activity is characterized by brevity, variety, and fragmentation;
3. The manager gravitates toward the more active elements of his work;
4. The manager demonstrates a strong preference for the verbal media of communication;
5. The manager maintains communication relationships with three groups--superiors, outsiders, and subordinates; and
6. The manager's job reflects a blend of rights and duties (1973, pp. 29-51).

This study has utilized a different classification system than the ones employed by Mintzberg and other "Mintzberg-like" studies. In fact, the rationale for exploring different theoretical propositions, methodologies, observation instruments and classification systems was encouraged by two factors: (1) "Mintzberg-like" studies have reached a point in research where they are simply collecting the same data, producing the same findings, and reaching the same conclusions--no new knowledge is being added to the literature and (2) Tennessee State Code 49-2-301 explicitly lists 31 duties required of those superintendents who administer the public schools of Tennessee (Tennessee Code Annotated, 1988, pp. 28-30). These duties naturally and logically fell into 14 of the 19 categories utilized in this study. In addition, the classification system specifically tailored for this study permitted comparative analysis between actual work behaviors and duties required by statutory law. Detailed treatment of

the classification system and the statutory requirements of superintendent duties can be found in the section entitled Methods and Procedures. The desire to gather new data to expand the knowledge and understanding of superintendent work patterns, behaviors, and activities and to consider how these may or may not contribute to the benefit of the public school systems operated by these chief executives motivated the conceptualization of this study.

Purpose of the Study

One purpose of the study was to determine how individual superintendents actually spent their seconds, minutes, hours, and days--a study into the quantitative nature of the superintendency.

A second purpose of the study was to determine if there were differences in administrative behavior and day-to-day work activities between superintendents who worked in small, medium, and large-sized school districts.

A desire to determine the amount of time devoted by district superintendents to unscheduled time formed a third purpose of the study.

A final purpose of the study was to assess the perceptions of superintendents with regard to how they spent their time and to compare these perceptions with how they actually spent their time as recorded by structured observation.

Research Questions

The following questions were formulated to guide the research activities:

1. How did selected Tennessee school superintendents spend their time in each of 19 categories of behavior or activity during two days of observations?

2. Did these selected Tennessee school superintendents spend their time differently based upon the size of their respective school systems?

3. What proportion of their time did selected Tennessee school superintendents spend on- and off-task?

4. How much time did superintendents of Tennessee schools spend dealing with unscheduled activities?

5. How did Tennessee school superintendents perceive they spent their time relative to the 19 categories used in the study, and were their perceptions different from their recorded observed behavior?

Importance of the Study

A Nation at Risk (1983) and the multitude of other national reports on educational reform either explicitly stated or inferred the importance of administrators in correcting the perceived problems of this nation's educational system. For example, it was recommended that:

> ...citizens across the Nation hold educators responsible for providing the leadership necessary to achieve these reforms....Principals and superintendents must play a crucial leadership role

> in developing school and community support for the reforms we propose... (National Commission, p. 32).

In addition, the 50 states have appointed over 300 task forces which look to superintendents and principals as major vehicles for implementing reforms. Cuban observed:

> Thus, in less than a century and a half, from a hired hand to supervise teachers in frail buildings and examine pupils for promotion, the superintendent had become, in the profession's eyes, the linchpin for the rise or decline of a nation (1976b, p. 24).

Accountability became the watch word for the educational reform movement. No longer were administrators simply able to assure constituencies that quality programs were being offered to children and that the time allotted for the school day was efficiently being used. School administrators were compelled to provide both quantitative and qualitative documentation that such programs existed. Because of the high level of emphasis placed upon accountability, the efficient utilization of time has become a major concern for administrators as evidenced by the innumerable studies, workshops, and articles detailing the benefits of time management.

A review of the literature revealed that of the 10 major studies of observed administrative behavior, only a total of 22 superintendents have been observed since 1973. Although these studies have produced valuable information, the findings and conclusions were based upon a relatively

small number of superintendents. It was felt that the data generated from a study of a relatively large number of superintendents had the potential not only for building upon and clarifying previous findings but also for providing additional information which could be of significant benefit to administrative practitioners. In addition, this study sought to differentiate between the work behaviors of superintendents who administer large, medium, and small-sized school systems.

It was believed that by observing and recording the daily work behaviors of superintendents, needed information concerning the efficient use of time would be provided; actual day-to-day work activities of superintendents would be detailed; information concerning the planned and unplanned agenda of the superintendency would be observed; and the knowledge gained from such a study would provide meaningful answers concerning the superintendency.

Therefore, in an attempt to "rethink" the Mintzberg approach, this study sought to explore other theoretical propositions, methodologies, and instruments of observation. By conducting studies which expand, enlarge, and improve present observation methods and classification systems it is possible to generate additional and informative data of "on-site" superintendent work behavior.

The major differences between the study conducted by

this researcher and those found in the review of the literature are: (1) data were collected by means of an observation instrument constructed of 19 predetermined categories, (2) work behaviors were examined based upon school system's enrollment size, (3) categories were connected to other major areas--Greatest and Least amount of expended time, On/Off Task behaviors and Unscheduled/Scheduled time, and (4) comparisons were conducted of work behavior as perceived by superintendents and those work behaviors documented by on-site observations.

Summary Review of the Literature

The review of the literature for this study was primarily limited to a particular type of manager--superintendents of education. This study did not attempt to conduct an in-depth historical review of the superintendency, as other authors have adequately covered the historical aspects of the position.

The literature presented two differing portraits of the superintendent. One was the "educational expert who dominates policy making as a result of his access to information, claims of technical expertise, and command of specialized language" (Pitner, 1978, p. 41), and the other as:

> ...a beleaguered public official...beset from all sides, constantly facing conflictual situations and being forced to seek support and build coalitions in order to gain the acceptance of even

part of his preferred education program (Boyd, 1976, p. 541).

In addition, discrepancies were also observed to exist in the nature of the superintendent's work as portrayed through the literature and the actual work activities of superintendents on a day-to-day basis.

A large number of studies utilizing a multitude of methodological approaches have attempted to detail the superintendency. Until the last decade research, with few exceptions, was predominately prescriptive--what the superintendent of education should do--rather than descriptive--what the superintendent actually does on a daily basis.

It wasn't until 1973 that research studies became more descriptive in nature. Henry Mintzberg sought to answer the question, "What do managers really do?" (1980, p. 17). His methodology was based upon the ability to document by on-site observations the administrative work behaviors and activities of managers.

Most of the superintendent studies since Mintzberg have in one form or another adopted or adapted Mintzberg's methodology and have reached virtually the same conclusions:

1. Managers work at an unrelenting pace;
2. Manager's work activity is characterized by brevity, variety, and fragmentation;
3. The manager gravitates toward the more active elements of his work;
4. The manager demonstrates a strong preference for the verbal media of communication;

5. The manager maintains communication relationships with three groups--superiors, outsiders, and subordinates; and
6. The manager's job reflects a blend of rights and duties (1973, p. 29-48).

In addition, McCall, Morrison, and Hannan (1978) reviewed 13 major studies which used some form of observation to assess the work behaviors of administrators or managers. This review began with Carlson, included Mintzberg, and concluded with Steward. McCall, et al. (1978) condensed the results of their literature review into ten statements:

1. Managers work long hours.
2. Managers are busy.
3. A manager's work is fragmented; episodes are brief.
4. The manager's job is varied.
5. Managers are "homebodies".
6. The manager's work is primarily oral.
7. Managers use a lot of contacts.
8. Managers are not reflective planners.
9. Information is the basic ingredient of the manager's work.
10. Managers don't know how they spend their time (pp. 6-17).

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This study employed a structured observational process to examine, observe, and record the day-to-day work activities and administrative behaviors of superintendents in the environment in which they work. As noted by Duignan (1980):

> This methodology allows the researcher to be more flexible in his observations and recordings enabling him to impose a structure during or after, rather than before, he collects his data. It

> combines the flexibility of unstructured (or open-ended) observation with the discipline of systematic selectivity of data (p. 9).

The procedures utilized in this study are discussed in such a way as to provide a "road map" for replication by other researchers.

Step 1. Convenience sampling was employed to select for study 15 superintendents of education from the state of Tennessee. Based upon enrollment, five superintendents were selected from school systems considered small for the state of Tennessee (1,000-4,999 students); five were selected from medium-sized systems (5,000-14,999 students); and five superintendents were selected from Tennessee school systems considered to be large (15,000+ students). Demographic characteristics of participating school districts are displayed in Table 1. All numerical information in Table 1 was taken from the scholastic year ending June 30, 1988.

Step 2. The classification system utilized to facilitate the study was originally developed by Dr. Robert Roney of the University of Tennessee for use in observing and determining time use of classroom teachers and has recently been adapted for administrative study of elementary principals by Dalton Bloomer (1989). With several exceptions, the observation instrument employed in this

TABLE 1

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDY SAMPLE

System Size	Supt.	Number of Students	Current Expenditure Per Pupil	Total Current Expenditures*	Number of Personnel**	Number of Central Office Administrators***	Elected or Appointed****	Gender****
Small	A	1,731	2,666	4,165,042	175	3	A	Male
Small	B	1,893	3,472	5,915,659	183	5	A	Male
Small	C	2,182	3,122	6,349,142	213	3	A	Male
Small	D	3,865	2,837	9,981,137	374	6	E	Male
Small	E	4,570	4,633	18,970,344	596	8	A	Male
Medium	F	5,223	4,365	20,362,378	649	8	A	Male
Medium	G	5,265	2,668	12,989,854	553	8	E	Female
Medium	H	5,730	3,625	18,462,446	717	10	A	Male
Medium	I	6,304	2,954	16,818,089	600	11	E	Male
Medium	J	6,561	2,496	14,445,424	624	5	E	Male
Large	K	16,615	3,644	54,322,954	1,777	15	E	Male
Large	L	22,874	3,281	65,486,078	1,900	45	A	Male
Large	M	35,616	2,752	86,505,098	2,800	34	A	Male
Large	N	54,725	3,251	151,934,599	5,352	85	E	Male
Large	O	69,697	4,280	261,747,353	7,432	25	A	Male

* In Millions

** Includes certified and classified personnel

*** Includes supervisors and attendance officers

****Data provided by participants

Source: Smith, C. (1989). State of Tennessee annual statistical report of the department of education for the scholastic year ending June 30, 1988. Nashville: Tennessee Department of Education.

study contained the same categories as Bloomer's study; but the definitions for those categories in many cases were modified or expanded to compensate and accommodate the greater administrative functions, behaviors, tasks, and responsibilities of the superintendent's position. The category Interruptions was found to be inadequate for the purposes of this study. It was decided that collecting and dividing the data by scheduled and unscheduled work time would improve the quality of the study, accomplish the purposes of the study, plus facilitate the gathering of data. The category Other was deleted from the observation instrument as there was no occasion for its use. In addition, five categories were added to the instrument. District-District interaction, Political Activism, and State Department-System Interaction were activities characteristically not observed at the principal level, while the categories School Staff Direction and Visibility and Transition were added to further delineate the work activities of the superintendency. (The instrument may be found in Appendix A.)

Step 3. Because of the nature of the chief executive's job, a working day was considered to be the hours between the superintendent's first and last official duty for the day. This included meetings for breakfast, dinner meetings, board meetings, classes taught at a local college, speaking

at a community club, or attendance at political rallies. There were differences among superintendents as to the arrival and departure times. One superintendent arrived at the office at 7:00 a.m. and departed at 5:30 p.m., while another arrived at 9:00 a.m. and left at 4:30 p.m. Therefore, depending upon the individual's work habits, each superintendent conceivably could have produced between 14 and 21 hours of observation data. Thus, 30 days of observations had the potential of yielding between 210 and 315 hours of observed administrative behavior. Through structured observations, work activities of each superintendent were recorded at 15 second intervals for two full days. This produced observational data representing 297 hours and 26 minutes of work activity.

Step 4. The modified observation instrument was field-tested in late January, 1989. Alteration or modification of the observation instrument deemed appropriate to the improvement of the instrument took place at that time.

Step 5. The reliability of the original instrument developed by Dr. Roney has been verified several times since its inception. The instrument was field-tested at both the elementary and high school levels in 1984. Afterwards, categories were modified and inter-rater reliability was examined and verified (Richards, 1985). In a 1985 study of teacher time-on-task by Richards, Roney's original model

with some revisions was employed. Subsequently, in 1988, a related study of special education teachers' time-on-task was conducted by DeLong (1988). DeLong slightly modified and utilized the Roney/Richards instrument "...to accommodate the division of management into instructional and clerical components" (DeLong, 1988, p. 13).

To accommodate the duties of public school administrators, Bloomer used Gottfredson and Hybl's 1987 study of principals as a rationale to modify Roney's instrument. Bloomer again modified the classification system after allowing principals within his own school district a chance to verify the classification system as to whether it was representative of the duties performed by elementary principals.

A major portion of the same classification system was employed in this study; consequently, while the classification system was applicable to the superintendency, many of the definitions of the Bloomer study (1989) were modified, expanded, or deleted to accommodate differences between the two positions. In addition, several categories and definitions were added because of the greater administrative role of the superintendency.

The annotated statutory code for the state of Tennessee (TCA) is explicit in the powers, responsibilities, and duties granted to and required of Tennessee superintendents;

and, in fact, TCA 49-2-301 requires boards of education to assign their superintendents 31 duties and responsibilities. The Tennessee code was employed as a means of insuring the relevance of the classification system and the observation instrument used in this study. The 19 categories of the observation instrument were used to classify the 31 statutory requirements. They were found to accommodate all but one of the requirements--"31. To perform such other official duties as may be prescribed by law" (Tennessee Code Annotated, 1988, p. 33).

Step 6. Precautions were taken to insure that the recording of administrative behavior was consistent and uniformly maintained. Several measures were taken to increase the reliability of this study: (1) systematic recording and coding procedures were adopted to maintain consistency, (2) field testing of the instrument was conducted to refine the observation instrument and data collection process, (3) interviews with each superintendent were initiated to check for agreement on the interpretation of events as defined in each category, and (4) the researcher rigorously adhered to the definitions supporting each area of classification.

Step 7. As in most cases, the validity of the instrument is dependent upon the reliability of the instrument and the data. Lutz and Iannoccone have suggested

that in field observations once reliability has been insured, validity is not a major issue:

> The observer is viewing the actual behavior. He is not one step away from the behavior as is the case when tests are used to measure perceptions of behavior. Rather, the field observer is looking at the actual behavior. In this method, if the data are reliable, they are usually valid (1969, p. 124).

Step 8. Actual observations of the 15 selected superintendents began February 22, 1989, and concluded April 27, 1989. Each superintendent received a short orientation explaining the purposes and procedures of the study prior to the actual day of observation. Every effort was made to stress the importance of the observer assuming the role of non-participant in the daily activities/conversations of the superintendent and system personnel. In addition, each superintendent participating in the study was guaranteed anonymity.

Step 9. To conduct the study, it was necessary for the researcher to record the behaviors of superintendents in as many types of work related incidents as possible--board meetings; personnel meetings; individual conferences; telephone calls; visits to schools; communications with subordinates, teachers and community members; and in moments when the administrator was working alone. So as not to distract or interrupt the normal work routine of the administrator, the researcher sought a position in an

unobtrusive location during the observations. The researcher was privy to all conversations and communications between the superintendent and those with whom he/she was interacting, although a few situations did develop which were by their very nature so sensitive and confidential that the observer was obliged to leave the observation area. When these incidents did occur, the observer noted the time required to deal with the situation and later conferred with the superintendent to note essentials of the incident.

Step 10. The observation instrument included the following categories: Budget Management, Coping with Disorder, Central Office Staff Direction and Visibility, District-District Interaction, Instructional Management, Keeping Up-to-Date, Office Management, Parent-Community Relations and Visibility, Personnel Management, Planning and Action for School Improvement, Political Activism, Policy Development, Socialization, School-System Interaction, School Staff Direction and Visibility, State Department-System Interaction, Student Interaction-Social Control and Visibility, Transition, and Unaccounted. The data collection instrument was designed in such a way as to allow the observer to check the appropriate categories corresponding to the superintendent's work behavior at 15 second intervals throughout the observation period.

Step 11. One explanation should be made concerning the

treatment of the categories: (1) In some cases the superintendent's behavior could have been placed in more than one category. For example, superintendents were observed interacting with teachers while simultaneously discussing personnel matters. Decisions regarding in which category to place the activities were based upon the main purpose or the major theme of the superintendent's behavior and not secondary purposes or side issues.

Step 12. At the end of the observation period each superintendent was asked to complete a survey questionnaire estimating the percentage of time he/she normally devoted to each category (See Appendix B).

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Introduction

Data representing a total of 294 hours and 26 minutes of structured non-participant observation were gathered between the dates of February 22, 1989, and April 27, 1989. The behaviors and activities of a convenience sample of 15 superintendents of education from the State of Tennessee were observed for two full working days. Data were recorded every 15 seconds and, depending upon the nature of the activity, entered in one of nineteen categories.

Table 2 presents a summary of the data gathered in this study. The actual number of times that each behavior

TABLE 2

TIME USE OF 15 TENNESSEE SUPERINTENDENTS BY CATEGORY OF ACTIVITIES/BEHAVIORS IN SMALL, MEDIUM, AND LARGE SCHOOL SYSTEMS, SPRING 1989

	Supts. of Small Districts					Supts. of Medium Districts					Supts. of Large Districts					Statistics				
Category	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	Min	Max	Range	Mean	Std Dev
CD	71	0	146	86	346	48	267	788	549	325	134	37	652	275	217	0	788	789	262.73	229.02
ON	1538	34	1026	1559	1253	670	997	752	756	794	1411	521	679	1372	418	34	1559	1526	918.67	428.29
PCRV	496	7	78	129	4	530	345	436	152	793	432	695	639	80	187	4	793	790	333.53	253.17
PM	39	0	718	328	455	383	434	60	470	183	305	37	337	244	460	0	718	719	296.87	196.95
SSI	104	0	45	292	176	180	46	174	180	233	13	34	34	68	137	0	292	293	114.40	85.68
SDI	4	103	251	0	0	34	4	0	0	151	0	10	0	0	9	0	251	252	37.73	71.38
CSDV	845	0	193	181	441	519	206	949	190	483	339	49	236	698	588	0	949	950	394.47	274.74
SISC	315	0	19	6	19	162	5	43	6	490	282	485	95	28	429	0	490	491	158.93	182.20
BM	633	0	541	343	425	154	141	264	292	241	936	1092	295	840	91	0	1092	1093	419.20	314.31
IM	40	0	251	65	146	440	427	150	311	247	375	437	471	28	0	0	471	472	225.87	170.35
RUD	71	8	17	0	94	17	68	162	15	0	0	70	6	38	20	0	162	163	39.07	44.35
PASI	8	0	261	1	0	226	946	60	535	0	56	0	214	209	31	0	946	947	169.80	253.65
PD	0	0	19	294	0	47	193	198	7	209	0	0	0	0	5	0	294	295	64.80	98.73
PA	0	1869	91	0	0	1078	0	0	0	0	0	370	0	11	305	0	1869	1870	248.27	514.39
S	63	74	28	321	110	108	56	55	59	3	163	126	327	752	161	3	752	750	160.40	182.86
T	332	1070	524	21	265	246	277	418	195	453	278	507	311	236	445	21	1070	1050	371.87	225.99
SSDV	331	0	122	0	420	526	727	778	208	79	42	0	17	0	19	0	778	779	217.93	264.68
DDI	75	195	296	0	23	119	40	0	15	16	0	59	0	8	46	0	296	297	59.47	81.92
U	160	279	242	333	221	244	180	221	43	197	265	253	253	235	122	43	333	291	216.53	67.44
Total	5125	3639	4868	3959	4398	5731	5359	5508	3983	4897	5031	4782	4566	5122	3690				4710.533	

or activity was observed is displayed by superintendent and by activity or behavior. These data represent a total of 70,658 fifteen second intervals of data collected during study period. It can be seen that the average number of 15 second intervals for all superintendents was 4710.5, which is equivalent to a total of 19 hours and 38 minutes. Although this equates to an average of nine hours and 48 minutes per day for two days of observation conducted on each superintendent, the average work day varied for individual superintendents and by system size. The maximum time spent on the job by an individual superintendent was 11 hours and 56 minutes per day (5731 observed units of 15 seconds each) and the minimum amount of time spent per day was seven hours and 35 minutes (3639 units). The work day for small system superintendents, as a group, was found to average 9 hours and 23 minutes; medium size system superintendents, 10 hours and 37 minutes; and large system superintendents, 9 hours and 38 minutes.

Table 3 presents the data collected in this study converted to percentages of the total time observed per superintendent and displayed in the 19 categories. It can be seen from analysis of the minimum and maximum data that in 14 of the 19 categories at least one superintendent did not spend any time in the listed category. In the other five categories the minimum amounts of time were 1.1 percent

TABLE 3

TIME USE OF 15 TENNESSEE SUPERINTENDENTS BY CATEGORY OF ACTIVITIES/BEHAVIORS, SYSTEM SIZE, AND PERCENT, SPRING 1989

	Supts. of Small Districts					Supts. of Medium Districts					Supts. of Large Districts					Statistics				
Category	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	Min	Max	Range	Mean	S.D.
CD	1.4	0.0	3.0	2.2	7.3	0.8	5.0	14.3	13.8	6.6	2.7	0.8	14.3	5.4	5.3	0.0	14.3	15.3	5.6	4.8
OM	30.0	0.9	21.1	35.4	28.5	11.7	18.6	13.7	19.0	6.2	23.0	10.9	14.9	26.8	11.3	0.9	39.4	39.5	19.4	9.4
PCRV	3.7	0.2	1.6	3.3	0.1	9.2	6.4	7.3	3.8	6.2	8.6	14.5	14.0	1.6	5.1	0.1	16.2	17.1	6.8	5.1
PM	0.8	0.0	14.7	8.3	10.3	6.7	8.1	1.1	11.8	3.7	6.1	0.8	7.4	4.8	12.5	0.0	14.7	15.7	6.5	4.5
SSI	2.0	0.0	0.9	7.4	4.0	3.1	0.9	3.2	4.5	4.8	0.3	0.7	0.7	1.3	3.7	0.0	7.4	8.4	2.5	2.0
SDI	0.1	2.8	5.2	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.1	0.0	0.0	3.1	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	5.2	6.2	0.8	1.8
CSDV	16.5	0.0	4.0	4.6	0.0	9.1	3.8	17.2	4.8	9.9	6.7	1.0	5.2	13.6	15.9	0.0	17.2	18.2	8.2	5.4
SISC	6.1	0.0	0.4	0.2	0.4	2.8	0.1	0.8	0.2	0.0	5.6	10.1	2.1	0.5	11.6	0.0	11.6	12.6	3.4	4.1
BM	12.4	0.0	11.1	8.7	9.7	2.7	2.6	4.8	7.3	4.9	18.6	22.8	6.5	16.4	2.5	0.0	22.8	23.8	8.7	6.3
IM	0.8	0.0	5.2	1.6	3.3	7.7	8.0	2.7	7.8	5.0	7.5	9.1	10.3	0.5	0.0	0.0	10.3	11.3	4.6	3.5
KUD	1.4	0.2	0.3	0.0	2.1	0.3	1.3	2.9	0.4	0.0	0.0	1.5	0.1	0.7	0.5	0.0	2.9	3.9	0.8	0.8
PASI	0.2	0.0	5.4	0.0	0.0	3.9	17.7	1.1	13.4	0.0	1.1	0.0	4.7	4.1	0.8	0.0	17.7	18.7	3.5	5.1
PD	0.0	0.0	0.4	7.4	0.0	0.8	3.6	3.6	0.2	4.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	7.4	8.4	1.4	2.2
PA	0.0	51.4	1.9	0.0	0.0	18.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.7	0.0	0.2	8.3	0.0	51.4	52.4	5.9	13.2
S	1.2	2.0	0.6	8.1	2.5	1.9	1.0	1.0	1.5	0.1	3.2	2.6	7.2	14.7	4.4	0.1	14.7	15.6	3.5	3.7
T	6.5	29.4	10.8	0.5	6.0	4.3	5.2	7.6	4.9	9.3	5.5	10.6	6.8	4.6	12.1	0.5	29.4	29.9	8.3	6.3
SSDV	6.5	0.0	2.5	0.0	9.5	9.2	13.6	14.1	5.2	1.6	0.8	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.5	0.0	14.1	15.1	4.3	4.9
DDI	1.5	5.4	6.1	0.0	0.5	2.1	0.7	0.0	0.4	0.3	0.0	1.2	0.0	0.2	1.2	0.0	6.1	7.1	1.3	1.8
U	3.1	7.7	5.0	8.4	5.0	4.3	3.4	4.0	1.1	4.0	5.3	5.3	5.5	4.6	3.3	1.1	8.4	8.3	4.7	1.7

or less. It was found that there was wide variation in the maximum percent of time spent by the 15 superintendents in the 19 categories. For example, it was found that the maximum time spent in Political Activism was 51.4 percent. On the other extreme, it was found that a maximum of only 2.9 percent of time was spent in the category of Keeping Up-To-Date.

The average percent of time spent in each category by the 15 superintendents varied from a low of 0.8 percent in the categories Keeping Up-To-Date and State Department-System Interaction, to a high of 19.4 percent in the area of Office Management. It is also interesting to note the relatively large standard deviations present.

The researcher has attempted to guide the reader toward viewing the data in terms of an average work day. In this case, "average" was equivalent to almost 10 hours (9 hours:48 minutes) of work per day for the 15 Tennessee superintendents participating in this study. Based upon the findings and utilizing a 10 hour work day as "a rule of thumb", "An Average Day in the Life of a Superintendent" is presented. Thus, a superintendent, one aspiring to the superintendency, or anyone interested in the expenditure of work time for this position should be able to visualize a typical day for the chief executive of a school district. The following discussion is depicted in Tables 4, 5, 6, and

7.

An Average Day in the Life of A Superintendent

In an average day (10 hours per work day) a superintendent can expect:

O on-task activities to consume 8 hours:22 minutes of the work day. By system size, small system superintendents can expect to be on task 8 hours:04 minutes; medium size system superintendents, 8 hours:58 minutes; and large system superintendents, 8 hours:05 minutes.

O to be absorbed in off-task behaviors 1 hour:39 minutes per work day. By system size, small system superintendents can expect to be off task 1 hour:56 minutes; medium size system superintendents, 1 hour:04 minutes; and large system superintendents, 1 hour:55 minutes.

O to expend almost 60 percent of the day working in six major areas--1 hour:56 minutes in Office Management; 56 minutes in Budget Management; 50 minutes in Transition; 49 minutes in Central Office Staff Direction/Visibility; 40 minutes in Parent-Community Relations and Visibility; and 39 minutes in Personnel Management.

O to expend the smallest percentage of the work day on five categories--Keeping Up-To-Date, State Department-System Interaction, District-District Interaction, Policy Development, and School-Systems Interaction. As a group, these activities could be expected to consume 41 minutes.

TABLE 4

AVERAGE PERCENT, AVERAGE NUMBER OF HOURS:MINUTES PER 10 HOUR WORK DAY, AND TOTAL NUMBER OF HOURS:MINUTES OF TIME SPENT ON 19 CATEGORIES OF OBSERVABLE BEHAVIOR FOR SELECTED TENNESSEE SUPERINTENDENTS, SPRING 1989

Category	Average Percent of Wk Time	Average Wk Time Per 10 hr Day	Total Number Hr:Min
Office Management	19.4	1:56	57:23
Budget Management	8.7	:52	26:12
Transition	8.3	:50	23:15
Central Office Staff Direction and Visibility	8.2	:49	24:39
Parent-Community Relations and Visibility	6.8	:41	20:51
Personnel Management	6.5	:39	18:33
Political Activism	5.9	:35	15:31
Coping with Disorder	5.6	:34	16:25
Unaccounted	4.7	:28	13:32
Instructional Management	4.6	:28	14:07
School Staff Direction and Visibility	4.3	:26	13:37
Planning and Action for School Improvement	3.5	:21	10:37
Socialization	3.5	:21	10:02
Student Interaction-Social Control and Visibility	3.4	:20	9:56
School-System Interaction	2.5	:15	7:09
Policy Development	1.4	:08	4:03
District-District Interaction	1.3	:08	3:43
Keeping Up-To-Date	0.8	:05	2:27
State Department-System Interaction	0.8	:05	2:21
Total*	100.0	10:00	294:26

*Column totals do not equal 100 percent, 10 hours per work day, or 294 hours and 26 minutes of total observations, respectively, due to rounding.

TABLE 5

PERCENT OF TIME USE OF ACTIVITIES/BEHAVIORS FOR FIVE SMALL, FIVE MEDIUM, AND FIVE LARGE SELECTED TENNESSEE SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS STRATIFIED BY SYSTEM SIZE AND AVERAGE PERCENT OF TIME SPENT IN EACH OF 19 CATEGORIES, SPRING 1989

System	CD	ON	PCRV	PM	SSI	SDI	CSDV	SISC	BM	IM	EUD	PASI	PD	FA	S	T	SSDV	DDI	U	Total
Small	1.4	30.0	9.7	0.8	2.0	0.1	16.5	6.1	12.4	0.8	1.4	0.2	0.0	0.0	1.2	6.5	6.5	1.5	3.1	100.0
Small	0.0	0.9	0.2	0.0	0.0	2.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	51.4	2.0	29.4	0.0	5.4	7.9	100.0
Small	3.0	21.1	1.6	14.7	0.9	5.2	4.0	0.4	11.1	5.2	0.3	5.4	0.4	1.9	0.6	10.8	2.5	6.1	5.0	100.0
Small	2.2	39.4	3.3	8.3	7.4	0.0	4.6	0.2	8.7	1.6	0.0	0.0	7.4	0.0	8.1	0.5	0.0	0.0	8.4	100.0
Small	7.9	28.5	0.1	10.3	4.0	0.0	10.0	0.4	9.7	3.3	2.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	6.0	9.5	0.5	5.0	100.0
Min	0.0	0.9	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.6	0.5	0.0	0.0	3.1	
Max	7.9	39.4	9.7	14.7	7.4	5.2	16.5	6.1	12.4	5.2	2.1	5.4	7.4	51.4	8.1	29.4	9.5	6.1	8.4	
Range	8.9	39.4	10.6	15.7	8.4	6.2	17.5	7.1	13.4	6.2	3.1	6.4	8.4	52.4	8.5	29.9	10.5	7.1	6.3	
Mean	2.9	24.0	3.0	6.8	2.9	1.6	4.0	1.4	8.4	2.2	0.8	1.1	1.6	10.6	2.9	10.6	3.7	2.7	5.8	
S.D.	2.7	12.9	3.5	5.7	2.6	2.1	5.7	2.4	4.4	1.9	0.8	2.1	2.9	20.4	2.7	9.9	3.8	2.5	1.9	
Med	0.8	11.7	9.2	6.7	3.1	0.6	9.1	2.8	2.7	7.7	0.3	3.9	0.8	18.8	1.9	4.3	9.2	2.1	4.3	100.0
Med	5.0	18.6	6.4	6.1	0.9	0.1	3.8	0.1	2.6	8.0	1.3	17.7	3.6	0.0	1.0	5.2	13.6	0.7	3.4	100.0
Med	14.3	13.7	7.9	1.1	3.2	0.0	17.2	0.8	4.8	2.7	2.9	1.1	3.6	0.0	1.0	7.6	14.1	0.0	4.0	100.0
Med	13.8	19.0	3.8	11.8	4.5	0.0	4.8	0.2	7.3	7.8	0.4	13.4	0.2	0.0	1.5	4.9	5.2	0.4	1.1	100.0
Med	6.6	16.2	16.2	3.7	4.8	3.1	9.9	10.0	4.9	5.0	0.0	0.0	4.3	0.0	0.1	9.3	1.6	0.3	4.0	100.0
Min	0.8	11.7	3.8	1.1	0.9	0.0	3.8	0.1	2.6	2.7	0.0	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.1	4.3	1.6	0.0	1.1	
Max	14.3	19.0	16.2	11.2	4.8	3.1	17.2	10.0	7.3	8.0	2.9	17.7	4.3	18.8	1.9	9.3	14.1	2.1	4.3	
Range	14.5	8.3	13.4	11.7	4.9	4.1	14.4	10.9	5.7	6.2	3.9	18.7	5.1	19.8	2.8	6.0	13.5	3.1	4.2	
Mean	8.1	15.8	8.7	6.3	3.3	0.8	9.0	2.8	4.5	6.2	1.0	7.2	2.5	3.8	1.1	6.2	8.7	0.7	3.3	
S.D.	5.2	2.8	4.1	3.7	1.4	1.2	4.8	3.6	1.7	2.1	1.1	7.0	1.7	7.5	0.6	1.9	4.8	0.7	1.2	
Large	2.7	28.0	8.6	6.1	0.3	0.0	6.7	5.6	16.6	7.5	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.0	3.2	5.5	0.8	0.0	5.3	100.0
Large	0.8	10.9	14.5	0.8	0.7	0.3	1.0	10.1	22.8	9.1	1.5	0.0	0.0	7.7	2.6	10.6	0.0	1.2	5.3	100.0
Large	14.3	14.9	14.0	7.4	0.7	0.1	5.2	2.1	6.5	10.3	0.1	4.7	0.0	0.0	7.2	6.8	0.4	0.0	5.5	100.0
Large	5.4	26.8	1.6	4.8	1.3	0.0	13.6	0.5	16.4	0.5	0.7	4.1	0.0	0.2	14.7	4.6	0.0	0.2	4.6	100.0
Large	5.9	11.3	5.1	12.5	3.7	0.2	15.9	11.6	2.5	0.0	0.5	0.8	0.1	8.3	4.4	12.1	0.5	1.2	3.3	100.0
Min	0.8	10.9	1.6	0.8	0.3	0.0	1.0	0.5	2.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.6	4.6	0.0	0.0	3.3	
Max	14.3	28.0	14.5	12.5	3.7	0.2	15.9	11.6	22.8	10.3	1.5	4.7	0.1	8.3	14.7	12.1	0.8	1.2	5.5	
Range	14.5	18.2	14.0	12.7	4.5	1.2	15.9	12.1	21.4	11.3	2.3	5.7	1.1	9.3	13.0	8.5	1.8	2.2	3.2	
Mean	5.8	18.4	8.7	6.3	1.4	0.1	8.5	6.0	13.4	5.5	0.6	2.1	0.0	3.2	6.4	7.9	0.3	0.5	4.8	
S.D.	4.6	7.5	5.0	3.8	1.2	0.1	5.5	4.3	7.7	4.4	0.5	1.9	0.1	3.9	4.4	2.9	0.3	0.6	0.8	

TABLE 6

AVERAGE PERCENT, AVERAGE NUMBER OF HOURS:MINUTES PER 10 HOUR WORK DAY, AND THE TOTAL NUMBER OF HOURS:MINUTES OF WORK BEHAVIOR DIFFERENCES BY CATEGORY BETWEEN SELECTED TENNESSEE SUPERINTENDENTS ADMINISTERING SMALL, MEDIUM, AND LARGE-SIZED SCHOOL SYSTEMS, SPRING 1989

	Average Percent of Time			Average Wk Time Per 10 Hr Day			Total Number of Hr:Min		
Category	Small	Medium	Large	Small	Medium	Large	Small	Medium	Large
Budget Management	8.4	4.5	13.4	:50	:27	1:20	8:06	4:33	13:33
Cent. Off. Staff Dir/Vis	7.0	9.0	8.5	:42	:54	:51	6:55	9:47	7:57
Coping with Disorder	2.9	8.1	5.8	:17	:49	:35	2:42	8:14	5:29
Dist-Dist Interaction	2.7	0.7	0.5	:16	:04	:03	2:27	:48	:28
Instructional Management	2.2	6.2	5.5	:13	:37	:33	2:06	6:34	5:28
Keeping Up-To-Date	0.8	1.0	0.6	:05	:06	:04	:48	1:06	:33
Office Management	24.0	15.8	18.4	2:24	1:35	1:50	22:33	16:32	18:20
Parent-Comm. Rel/ Vis	3.0	8.7	8.7	:18	:52	:52	2:59	9:24	8:28
Personnel Management	6.8	6.3	6.3	:41	:38	:38	6:25	6:23	5:46
Plan/Action for Sch Impr	1.1	7.2	2.1	:07	:43	:13	1:08	7:22	2:08
Political Activism	10.6	3.8	3.2	1:04	:23	:19	8:10	4:30	2:51
Policy Development	1.6	2.5	0.0	:10	:15	:00	1:18	2:44	:01
Sch Staff Dir/Vis	3.7	8.7	0.3	:22	:52	:02	3:38	9:39	:20
Sch-System Interaction	2.9	3.3	1.4	:17	:20	:08	2:32	3:23	1:12
Socialization	2.9	1.1	6.4	:17	:07	:38	2:29	1:10	6:22
State Dept-Syst Inter	1.6	0.8	0.1	:10	:05	:01	1:30	:47	:05
Stu Inter-Soc Contr/Vis	1.4	2.8	6.0	:08	:17	:36	1:30	2:57	5:30
Transition	10.6	6.2	7.9	1:04	:37	:47	9:13	6:37	7:24
Unaccounted	5.8	3.3	4.8	:35	:20	:29	5:09	3:41	4:42
Total[a]	100.0	100.0	100.0	10:00	10:00	10:00	91:38	106:11	96:37

[a]The column totals do not equal 100 percent or 10 hours per work day, respectively, due to rounding.

TABLE 7

AVERAGE PERCENT BY CATEGORY OF ON- AND OFF-TASK WORK BEHAVIOR DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SELECTED TENNESSEE SUPERINTENDENTS ADMINISTERING SMALL, MEDIUM, AND LARGE-SIZED SCHOOL SYSTEMS, SPRING 1989

Category	On-Task Behaviors by Average Percent of Time			Total Average Percent	Off-Task Behaviors by Average Percent of Time			Total Average Percent
	Small	Medium	Large		Small	Medium	Large	
Budget Management	8.4	4.5	13.4	8.7	X	X	X	X
Central Off Staff Dir/Vis	7.0	9.0	8.5	8.2	X	X	X	X
Coping with Disorder	2.9	8.1	5.8	5.6	X	X	X	X
Dist-Dist Inter	2.7	0.7	.5	1.3	X	X	X	X
Instructional Management	2.2	6.2	5.5	4.6	X	X	X	X
Keeping Up-To-Date	0.8	1.0	.6	0.8	X	X	X	X
Office Management	24.0	15.8	18.4	19.4	X	X	X	X
Parent-Comm Rel/Vis	3.0	8.7	8.7	6.8	X	X	X	X
Personnel Management	6.8	6.3	6.3	6.5	X	X	X	X
Plan/Act for Sch Imprv	1.1	7.2	2.1	3.5	X	X	X	X
Political Activism	10.6	3.8	3.2	1.4	X	X	X	X
Policy Development	1.6	2.5	0.0	5.9	X	X	X	X
Sch Staff Dir/Vis	3.7	5.7	0.3	4.3	X	X	X	X
Sch-System Interaction	2.9	3.3	1.4	2.5	X	X	X	X
State Dept-Sys Inter	1.6	0.8	0.1	0.8	X	X	X	X
Stu Inter-Soc Cont/Vis	1.4	2.8	6.0	3.4	X	X	X	X
Socialization	X	X	X	X	2.9	1.1	6.4	3.5
Transition	X	X	X	X	10.6	6.2	7.9	8.3
Unaccounted	X	X	X	X	5.8	3.3	4.8	4.7
Total	80.7	89.4	80.8	83.7	19.3	10.6	19.1	16.5

O to devote the greatest percentage of time to Office Management (19.4%)--1 hour:56 minutes. Based upon the size of the school system, small system superintendents will devote, on the average, 2 hours:24 minutes (24.0%); medium-sized system superintendents, 1 hour:35 minutes (15.8%); and large system superintendents 1 hour:50 minutes (18.4%).

O to spend the largest percentage of work time and perform the vast majority of administrative functions within the confines of the central office.

O to devote very little time to instructional management--28 minutes per work day.

O to spend, on the average, 35 minutes per working day in political activism. This will vary depending upon school system size--small system superintendents, 1 hour:04 minutes; 23 minutes for medium system superintendents; and, 19 minutes for large system superintendents.

O to be unable to control or schedule activities and events for about 2 hours per day.

O to spend approximately 10 hours per day working. This may vary depending upon the size of the school system. The average work day for small system superintendents was found to average 9 hours:23 minutes; medium-sized system superintendents, 10 hours:37 minutes; and large system superintendents, 9 hours:38 minutes.

In addition, small system superintendents were found to

spend more time than other superintendents managing the office, in political activism, moving from activity to activity, and interacting with other system superintendents. Small system superintendents were also found to spend less time than medium and large system superintendents coping with disorder, managing instruction, parent-community relations and visibility, and interacting with students.

Medium system superintendents spent more time than other size system superintendents visiting schools to interact with school staff, coping with disorder, and planning and implementing school improvement. Medium system superintendents spent less time than small and large system superintendents managing the budget, managing the office, socializing, and moving from activity to activity.

Large system superintendents spent more time than small and medium system superintendents managing the budget, socializing, and interacting with students. Large system superintendents were also observed spending less time than other system size superintendents developing system policy, and visiting schools to interact with school staff.

Major differences were found to exist among system superintendents when data were analyzed by system size. Small system superintendents expended the greatest percentage of work time on the following five categories: Office Management, Political Activism, Transition, Budget

Management, and Central Office Staff Direction/Visibility. Superintendents operating medium-sized school districts expended the greatest percentage of work time on the following five categories: Office Management, Central Office Staff Direction and Visibility, Parent-Community Relations/Visibility, School Staff Direction/Visibility, and Coping with Disorder. Large system superintendents devoted the greatest percentage of work time to the following five categories: Office Management, Budget Management, Parent-Community Relations and Visibility, Central Office Staff Direction and Visibility, and Transition.

Superintendents operating small school districts expended the least amount of work time on the following five categories: Keeping Up-To-Date, Planning and Action for School Improvement, Student Interaction-Social Control/Visibility, Policy Development, and State Department-System Interaction. Medium system superintendents devoted the least amount of time on the following five categories: District-District Interaction, State Department-System Interaction, Keeping Up-To-Date, Socialization, and Policy Development, while large system superintendents expended the least percentage of work time on the following five categories: Policy Development, State-Department-System Interaction, School Staff Direction/Visibility, District-District Interaction, and

Keeping Up-To-Date.

The fifteen superintendents selected from small, medium, and large school systems were able to accurately estimate the amount of time spent on the 19 activities and behaviors observed in this study.

The conclusions of the study can be summarized as follows:

O Superintendents were diligent in attending to the job requirements of the superintendency.

O To be successful, superintendents must possess considerable expertise in the areas of management, budget and finance, supervision and evaluation of other administrators, conflict management, time management, public relations, and personnel management.

O To accomplish their goals and objectives, superintendents expended a relatively small proportion of their time engaged in activities that required interaction with colleagues and employees outside the central office complex.

O The commonly held perception that superintendents of education are instructional managers is possibly a myth. Superintendents were managers and not necessarily instructional leaders of school districts. This conclusion was supported by the close agreement between researcher-observed and superintendent-estimated work behavior.

- Superintendents manifested a preference for the latest, most current, and up-to-date information, and in particular, preferred the latest information concerning their local educational system.

- It is possible that combinations of system size, central office staff allotments, and activities required to operate school systems more closely approximate optimum conditions for the efficient management and operation of an office in the medium-sized school district than in small and large districts.

- Central office employee allotments, office demands, and budget demands were not equitable among system superintendents. In addition, system size, central office staff allotments, and the varying events/activities associated with organizational size contributed to, if not dictated, the differences in the work duties and responsibilities of superintendents.

- Superintendents of education, as a whole, viewed political activism as a means to achieve the educational goals and objectives that were important to them. Small system superintendents were more aggressive in the local/state political process and perceived it as a mode through which to achieve equity in educational revenues.

- Superintendents knew what their job entailed and the time required to accomplish it.

O Behaviors and activities of superintendents associated with socialization, transition, and unaccounted were, in most cases, legitimate means by which the superintendents gave thought to critical issues, acquired ideas, gathered information for decision making, and became accessible to subordinates.

O Superintendents operating, or those who aspire to administer medium size school districts, can expect to be on-task more often than small or large system superintendents.

Recommendations

Recommendations are addressed to those who aspire to the superintendency, practicing superintendents, educators, administrators in colleges and schools of education, local and state boards of education, and future researchers.

1. The superintendency requires substantial amounts of work time and considerable expertise in the areas of general management, finance and budget management, supervision of administrative employees, public relations, and personnel management. Therefore, it is recommended that colleges of education and, in particular, departments of educational leadership place high priority on assessing, and if appropriate, up-grading existing preparation programs for the purpose of providing the skills and expertise required to perform the duties of the superintendency adequately.

State departments of education should examine the possibility of providing in-depth training in the above areas on a state-wide basis. Further, local boards of education should consider sending superintendents to workshops, conferences, and academies for periodic administrative refresher courses in the above areas.

2. The superintendents selected for study were relatively accurate in their perceptions concerning the amount of time devoted to the differing responsibilities of the superintendency. Therefore, it is recommended that colleges and schools of education, in general, and departments with Educational Leadership programs, in particular, enlist the aid of superintendents of education in the design/development of administrative content courses.

3. This study concluded that superintendents were not instructional leaders but managers of school systems. It is therefore recommended that superintendents devote more work time to instructional leadership and that departments of Educational Leadership design programs and courses to adequately prepare administrators for instructional leadership.

4. Substantial work differences were observed among superintendents who operated small, medium, and large school systems. It is recommended that departments of Educational Leadership address these differences with course designs and

programmatic solutions. It is also recommended that workshops be conducted by such which address the administrative differences for practitioners in the field.

5. Often the daily work schedule is controlled by the chief administrator, but at other times unanticipated activities and unplanned events dictated the use of the superintendent's work time. It is therefore recommended that superintendents of education consider the merits of acquiring time management skills.

Implications for Further Research

This study has employed a new methodology, classification system, and data collection procedure as compared to those used in previous studies of superintendents. It is therefore recommended that the study be replicated to verify and expand upon those findings, conclusions, and recommendations found herein.

Based upon the methodology and the collected data, further research should be conducted into developing, refining, and possibly expanding the methodology, classification system, and the data collecting procedures employed in this study.

The findings, conclusions, and recommendations of this study were based upon data collected during the early spring months of 1989. Further research should be conducted during other time periods of the superintendents' work year--fall,

winter, and summer.

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APPENDIX A
SAMPLE OBSERVATION FORM

SUPERINTENDENT OBSERVATION FORM

SCH. SYS._____ SUPT. NO.___ OBS.____ HOUR_____ DATE_____

TIME	CD	OM	PCRV	PM	SSI	SDI	CSDV	SISC	BM	IM	KUD	PASI	PD	PA	S	T	SSDV	DDI	U
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APPENDIX B
SAMPLE REPORTING FORM
SUPERINTENDENT'S PERCEPTION OF DAILY WORK ACTIVITIES

(Please estimate the amount of time you believe you normally spend on each of the categories--combined estimations must total 100%.)

1. Budget Management--Financial planning, budgets, expenditure of system funds, cost analysis and strategies, investments, and facility planning--maintenance, renovation, and/or new construction.

   _____% of the day.

2. Central Office Staff Direction and Visibility--Task related to planning staff meetings, directing/orienting administrators, establishing one's presence in the office; having lunch with central office staff.

   _____% of the day.

3. Coping with Disorder--unscheduled activities or events disruptive in nature to the operation of the school system--disgruntled persons; interacting with police, board, attorney, regarding troublesome areas; accidents and emergencies; dealing with conflict and volatile situations.

   _____% of the day.

4. District-District Interaction (DDI) involves contacts, discussions, meetings, and communicating with other district superintendents.

   _____% of the day.

5. Instructional Management--state test; testing program; organizing curriculum activities; setting educational objectives and policies; and establishing academic requirements.

   _____% of the day.

6. Keeping Up-to-Date--Reading local and state newspapers, professional journals, research findings and work related books; reviewing federal, state or local board policies.

   _____% of the day.

7. Office Management--desk work; mail; telephone calls; setting board agendas; directives to clerical and non-teaching staff members; and supervising the overall functions of the central office.

_____% of the day.

8. Parent-Community Relations and Visibility--Meetings with parents, citizens, and patrons; promoting the school system; parent/community public relations; communication and interaction with the news media; the preparation for, speaking at, or attending community meetings--PTA, Rotary, Lions, etc.

_____% of the day.

9. Personnel Management--staff meetings; assigning responsibilities to staff; evaluating employee performance; recommendations for employment/re-employment; arbitrating personnel disputes; and arranging for in-service programs.

_____% of the day.

10. Planning and Action for School Improvement--Assessing the needs of the school system; developing plans for system improvement/school improvement; setting goals--short-range and long-range planning, strategic planning, etc.

_____% of the day.

11. Political Activism--use of the local and/or state political processes to achieve educational goals--lobbying legislators and other elected local and state officials. The planning, organizing, and implementation of strategies designed to activate the political process for the purpose of achieving educational goals.

_____% of the day.

12. Policy Development--Activities that establish, change, or modify system/school policies.

_____% of the day.

13. School Staff Direction and Visibility--Discussions and interactions between the superintendent and teachers; visits to schools to see teachers, school secretaries,

aides, cafeteria and custodial employees; lunch with teachers; and the superintendent establishing his presences in the schools.

_____% of the day.

14. Socialization--Pleasant conversations with people, friends, associates, or students on topics unrelated to school.

_____% of the day.

15. State Department-System Interaction--Negotiations, interpretations, discussions, and interactions with the State Department of Education and vice versa.

_____% of the day.

16. Student Interaction-Social Control and Visibility--Tasks, functions, or activities involving interaction with students or groups of student related to discipline, attendance, or academic matters; establishing one's presence in the schools.

_____% of the day.

17. System-School/School-System Interaction--Negotiations, interpretations, discussions, and interactions between the superintendent and principals(s).

_____% of the day.

18. Transition (T) involves moving from one work activity to another. Transition may entail the time require to drive from the central office to a school site or the time to walk from one office to another.

_____% of the day.

19. Unaccounted--Activities or behaviors which have nothing to do with carrying out day-to-day work activities (day dreaming, lunch, restroom breaks, personal activities, etc.)

_____% of the day.

100% TOTAL